Process Analysis Toolkit (PAT) 3.5 User Manual

Table of contents

1. Introduction
   1.1 Preface
   1.2 Organization
2. Getting Started
   2.1 Installation
   2.2 Graphic User Interface
      2.2.1 PAT Editor
      2.2.2 PAT Simulator
      2.2.3 Graph Difference Analysis
      2.2.4 PAT Verifier
      2.2.5 New Model Wizard
   2.3 System Options
      2.3.1 BDD Settings
   2.4 LTL to Automata Converter
   2.5 Using C# (C/C++/Java) Code as Libraries
      2.5.1 External Static Methods
      2.5.2 User Defined Data Type
      2.5.3 Using Microsoft Contracts.htm
      2.5.4 Using C/C++ Code in PAT
   2.6 Keyboard Shortcuts
   2.7 Command Line
3. Process Analysis Toolkit
   3.1 Communicating Sequential Programs (CSP#) module
      3.1.1 Language Reference
3.1.1 3.1.1.1 Global Definitions
3.1.1.2 3.1.1.2 Process Definitions
3.1.1.3 3.1.1.3 Assertions
3.1.1.4 3.1.1.4 Expressions
3.1.1.5 3.1.1.5 Grammar Rules
3.1.1.6 3.1.1.6 Process Laws
3.1.1.7 3.1.1.7 Verification Options

3.1.2 3.1.2 CSP Module Tutorial
3.1.2.1 Bridge Crossing Example
3.1.2.2 Dining Philosophers Example
3.1.2.3 Multi-Lift System Example

3.1.3 3.1.3 Miscellaneous

3.2 3.2 Real-Time System (RTS) Module
3.2.1 3.2.1 Language Reference
3.2.1.1 3.2.1.1 Timed Process Definitions
3.2.1.2 3.2.1.2 Assertions
3.2.1.3 3.2.1.3 Grammar Rules
3.2.1.4 3.2.1.4 Verification Options

3.2.2 3.2.2 Real-Time System Tutorial
3.2.2.1 Fischer's Mutual Exclusion Example
3.2.2.2 Train Cross Control Example

3.3 3.3 Probability CSP (PCSP) Module
3.3.1 3.3.1 Language Reference
3.3.1.1 3.3.1.1 Probability Processes
3.3.1.2 3.3.1.2 Assertions
3.3.1.3 3.3.1.3 Grammar Rules
3.3.1.4 3.3.1.4 Verification Options

3.3.2 3.3.2 PCSP Module Tutorial
3.3.2.1 PZ86 Mutual Exclusion
3.3.2.2 Monty Hall Example
3.4 Probability RTS (PRTS) Module

3.4.1 Language Reference

3.4.1.1 PRTS Processes

3.4.1.2 Assertions

3.4.1.3 Grammar Rules

3.4.2 PRTS Module Tutorial

3.5 Labeled Transition System (LTS) Module

3.5.1 Language Reference

3.5.1.1 Global Definitions

3.5.1.2 Primitive Process Definitions

3.5.1.2.1 Drawing

3.5.1.2.1.1 Navigation Tree

3.5.1.2.1.2 Canvas

3.5.1.2.2 State

3.5.1.2.3 Transition

3.5.1.3 Process Definitions

3.5.1.4 Verification Options

3.5.2 LTS Module Tutorial

3.5.2.1 Bridge Crossing Example

3.6 Timed Automata (TA) Module

3.6.1 Language Reference

3.6.1.1 Declarations

3.6.1.2 Process Definitions

3.6.1.2.1 Drawing

3.6.1.2.1.1 Navigation Tree

3.6.1.2.1.2 Canvas

3.6.1.2.2 State

3.6.1.2.3 Transition

3.6.1.3 Grammar Rules
3.6.2 3.6.2 TA Module Tutorial
   3.6.2.1 3.6.2.1 Fischer's Protocol
   3.6.2.2 3.6.2.2 Railway Control System
   3.6.2.3 3.6.2.3 CSMA/CD Protocol

3.7 3.7 NesC Module
   3.7.1 3.7.1 Language Reference
      3.7.1.1 3.7.1.1 Drawing a Sensor Network
      3.7.1.2 3.7.1.2 The NesC Language
      3.7.1.3 3.7.1.3 TinyOS Library
      3.7.1.4 3.7.1.4 Semantic Model
      3.7.1.5 3.7.1.5 Assertions
   3.7.2 3.7.2 NesC Module Tutorial
      3.7.2.1 3.7.2.1 Individual Sensor Tutorial
         3.7.2.1.1 BlinkApp Example
      3.7.2.2 3.7.2.2 Sensor Network Tutorial
         3.7.2.2.1 LeaderElection Protocol

3.8 3.8 Orc Module
   3.8.1 3.8.1 Language Reference.htm
      3.8.1.1 3.8.1.1 The ORC Language.htm
      3.8.1.2 3.8.1.2 Addon for Verification.htm
      3.8.1.3 3.8.1.3 Assertions.htm
      3.8.1.4 3.8.1.4 Supported Sites.htm
      3.8.1.5 3.8.1.5 Grammar Rules.htm
   3.8.2 3.8.2 ORC Module Tutorial.htm
      3.8.2.1 3.8.2.1 Metronome.htm
      3.8.2.2 3.8.2.2 Concurrent Quicksort.htm
      3.8.2.3 3.8.2.3 Auction Management.htm

3.9 3.9 Stateflow (MDL) Module
   3.9.1 3.9.1 Language Reference
   3.9.2 3.9.2 Stateflow Tutorial
3.9.2.1 3.9.2.1 Alarm Monitor
3.9.2.2 3.9.2.2 Stopwatch
3.9.2.3 3.9.2.3 Gear Shift
3.9.2.4 3.9.2.4 Fault-tolerant Fuel Controller
3.9.2.5 3.9.2.5 SB Logic

3.10 3.10 Security Module
3.10.1 3.10.1 Language Reference
   3.10.1.1 3.10.1.1 Specification section
   3.10.1.2 3.10.1.2 Verification section
   3.10.1.3 3.10.1.3 Grammar Rules
3.10.2 3.10.2 SeVe Module Tutorial
   3.10.2.1 3.10.2.1 Needham Schroeder Protocol

3.11 3.11 Web Service (WS) Module (obsolete)
3.11.1 3.11.1 Language Reference
   3.11.1.1 3.11.1.1 Global Definitions
   3.11.1.2 3.11.1.2 Web Service Choreography
   3.11.1.3 3.11.1.3 Web Service Orchestration
   3.11.1.4 3.11.1.4 Assertions
   3.11.1.5 3.11.1.5 Grammar Rules
3.11.2 3.11.2 Web Service Tutorial
   3.11.2.1 Online Shopping Example

3.12 3.12 UML into PAT
   3.12.1 ATM Example

4. 4 Special Features
4.1 4.1 Fairness
4.2 4.2 Parallel Verification
4.3 4.3 Verification of Infinite Systems
4.4 4.4 Verification of Linearizability
4.5 4.5 Timed Zenoness Checking

5. 5 Developer Guild
1. 1 Introduction

Welcome to Process Analysis Toolkit (PAT)!

PAT is a self-contained framework for to support composing, simulating and reasoning of concurrent, real-time systems and other possible domains. It comes with user friendly interfaces, featured model editor and animated simulator. Most importantly, PAT implements various model checking techniques catering for different properties such as deadlock-freeness, divergence-freeness, reachability, LTL properties with fairness assumptions, refinement checking and probabilistic model checking. To achieve good performance, advanced optimization techniques are implemented in PAT,
e.g. partial order reduction, symmetry reduction, process counter abstraction, parallel model checking.

The main functionalities of PAT are listed as follows:

- User friendly editing environment (multi-document, multi-language, I18N GUI and advanced syntax editing features) for introducing models
- User friendly simulator for interactively and visually simulating system behaviors; by random simulation, user-guided step-by-step simulation, complete state graph generation, trace playback, counterexample visualization, etc.
- Easy verification for deadlock-freeness analysis, reachability analysis, state/event linear temporal logic checking (with or without fairness) and refinement checking.
- A wide range of built-in examples ranging from benchmark systems to newly developed algorithms/protocols.

We design PAT as an extensible and modularized framework, which allows user to build customized model checkers easily. We provide a library of model checking algorithms as well as the support for customizing language syntax, semantics, model checking algorithms and reduction techniques, graphic user interfaces, and domain specific abstraction techniques. Delightfully, PAT has been growing up to eleven modules today to deal with problems in different domains including Real Time Systems, Web Service Models, Probability Models, and Sensor Networks etc. In order to be state-of-the-art, we are actively developing PAT to cope with latest formal-automated system analysis techniques.

We have been using PAT to model and verify a variety of systems. Ranging from recently proposed distributed algorithms, security protocols to real-world systems like multi-lift and pacemaker systems. Previously unknown bugs have been discovered. The experiment results (available in PAT web site) show that PAT is capable of verifying systems with large number of states and outperforms the popular model checkers in some cases. We have successfully demonstrated PAT as an analyzer for process
algebras in the 30th International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE 2008) [LiuSD08], the 21st International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV 2009) [SunLDP09] and FSE 2010 [LIUSD10].

This manual will introduce you various aspects of PAT, including using PAT and specific knowledge of different modules in PAT. In this chapter, we will discuss about why we need system verification and what PAT is designed for. See Section 1.1 Preface. Also we will give an outline to show how this manual is organized and what are the main topics covered. See Section 1.2 Organization.

About PAT:

PAT project is initialized in School of Computing, National University of Singapore in July 2007.

The key members designing PAT are:

- Dr. **SUN, Jun**, Assistant Professor, Singapore University of Technology and Design.
- Dr. **LIU, Yang**, Senior Research Scientist, Temasek Laboratories and School of Computing, National University of Singapore.
- Dr. **DONG, Jin Song**, Associated Professor, School of Computing, National University of Singapore.

Contact us:

Should you meet any difficulty using PAT or find bugs of PAT or have some suggestion on improving PAT, please do not hesitate to contact any one of us. Alternatively, you can send an email to pat@comp.nus.edu.sg.

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1.1 1.1 Preface

Why we need Process Analysis Toolkit?

To be able to verify the correctness of computer systems, no matter whether they are hardware, software or a combination, is of great importance. Well, there are essential problems which cannot be discovered by current techniques. For instance, the concurrent bugs are among the most difficult to be found by testing, since they tend to be non-reproducible or not covered by test cases [HUTH&Ryan04]. Thus it is well worth having handy verification tools to simulate the system behaviors and verify critical properties such as safety, concurrency, liveness and fairness. Then comes our Process Analysis Toolkit (PAT)!

What is PAT?
**Process Analysis Toolkit** (also known as PAT, available at [http://www.patroot.com](http://www.patroot.com)) is designed to apply state-of-the-art model checking techniques for system analysis.

At first we developed this tool to investigate system (specified using the classic process algebra Communicating Sequential Processes - CSP) verification under fairness assumptions. The motivation is that fairness assumptions are often necessary in system verification practice in order to prove desirable system properties, whereas existing languages and tools have limited support for fairness modeling as well as verification. Since then, PAT has been evolved to be a self-contained framework to support reach-ability analysis, deadlock-freeness analysis, full LTL (linear temporal logic) model checking, refinement checking as well as a powerful simulator. It is a user-friendly model checker for all users.

Starting from PAT 2.0, we applied a modularized design to support the analysis of the different system/languages. Each language is encapsulated as one module with predefined APIs, which identify the (specialized) language syntax, well-formed rules as well as (operational) formal semantics, and loaded at run time according to the input model. This layered architecture allows new languages to be developed easily by providing the syntax rules and semantics. Till now, eleven modules have been developed, namely Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) module, Web Service (WS) module, Real-Time System Module, Probability CSP Module, Orc Module, Security Module and NesC Module etc.. In the future, our targeted systems include C# program and UML (state chart and sequence diagrams) and so on. Please refer to [Chapter 3 the Process Analysis Toolkit](#) for detailed information.

From PAT 3.0, we emphasis the extension and creating custimized model checkers, which provides the different interfaces for domain experts to create their model checkers with minimum efforts. There are several ways to create your dedicated model checker which will be introduced in section [5.3 PAT extensions](#). You can create a new module either by easy translation or extending the language syntax or apply new
properties and corresponding checking algorithms or building a completely new module following the steps and using pre-defined API as we will show you.

1.2 1.2 Organization

This manual is organized as follows:

- **Chapter 1 Introduction**
  - Brief introduction about why we need system verification and what is Process Analysis Toolkit and information related to PAT issues. And also give an outline about how this manual is organized.
    - 1.1 Preface
    - 1.2 Organization

- **Chapter 2 Getting started**
  - This chapter will give you the detailed and helpful information about how to install, configure and use PAT.
    - 2.1 Installation
    - 2.2 Graphic User Interface
    - 2.3 System Configuration
    - 2.4 LTL to Automata Converter
    - 2.5 Using C# Library
    - 2.6 Keyboard Shortcuts
    - 2.7 Command Line

- **Chapter 3 Process Analysis Toolkit**
  - This chapter helps you with the detailed information about how to play with PAT, including the depth knowledge about PAT's architecture and different modules. Each module has a specific language reference and a tutorial part which shows
how PAT can be used in different domains such as reasoning about strict Real
Time System problems.

- 3.1 Communication Sequence Process Module
- 3.2 Real Time System Module
- 3.3 Probability CSP Module
- 3.4 Probability RTS Module
- 3.5 Labeled Transition System (LTS) Module
- 3.6 Timed Automata (TA) Module
- 3.7 NesC Module
- 3.8 Orc Module
- 3.9 Stateflow (MDL) Module
- 3.10 Security Module
- 3.11 Web Service Module
- 3.12 Import UML into PAT

- Chapter 4 Special Features
  - 4.1 Fairness
  - 4.2 Parallel Verification
  - 4.3 Verification of Infinite Systems
  - 4.4 Verification of Linearizability
  - 4.5 Timed Zenoness Checking

- Chapter 5 Developer Guide
  - 5.1 PAT Architecture
  - 5.2 PAT Class Diagram
  - 5.3 PAT Extensions
  - 5.4 PAT APIs
  - 5.5 Module Generator

- Chapter 6 FAQ

Questions and answers about installing and using PAT.
2. 2 Getting Started

This chapter will explain you how to install and configure PAT, as well as how the friendly user interface helps you to start using PAT. Also a few advanced topics like using C# code as library will also be discussed here. See the corresponding section for detailed information.

Topics covered in this chapter are as follows:

- System installation and configuration
- Graphic User Interface including Editor, Simulator, Graph Difference Analysis, Verifier and New Model Wizard
- LTL to Automata Converter
- Using C# (C/C++/Java) code as library
- Keyboard Shortcuts
- Using Command Line

When the first time you launch PAT, you will see this picture straightforward guiding you to start with PAT!
2.1.2.1 Installation

2.1 Installation:

Install PAT 3.x in Windows XP, Vista and Windows Server 2000/2003, Windows 7:
1. You should have .NET Framework 4.0 above, which can be downloaded here.


3. **Download PAT:** Click Download from the panel on the left and then follow the link at the first line in the middle panel.

4. **Register your information:** Fill out the registration form and you will be re-directed to the downloading page.

5. **Install PAT:** Double click the downloaded executable file and follow the instruction.

6. **Q&A:** If you have problems on installing PAT, check out the FAQ.

Install PAT 3.x in **Linux, Unix, Mac OS or more**, please follow these steps:

1. You should install **mono tool** in your system which is freely available. Please download from here according to your OS. **Note** that libmono-winforms2.0-cil (plus its dependencies) may need be added in order to run PAT under Linux (Ubuntu).

2. **Download** PAT 3.x from our website as (Step 2-4) above. But choose the **directly executable version** to some place in your computer.

3. In your computer, start **terminal** application, using the command `cd` to the directory where you put "PAT 3.exe";

4. Type the command `mono "PAT 3.exe"` into terminal. (You might need to add execute permission as `chmod +x "/PAT 3.exe"`) Bingo! You will see the GUI of our PAT.

5. Currently the latest mono 2.8.x has some problem on Mac, if you meet some error related to winforms, please use the mono-2.6.7 which is available here.

Note: PAT runs faster in Windows than other OS. The reason is that mono is not as fast as native .NET framework.

### 2.2 System requirements:
1. .NET framework 4.0 and Windows XP, Vista and Windows Server 2000/2003, Windows 7. or
2. Mono tool for all other operating systems.

2.3 Update and Un-installation:

1. Automatic update when system is launched. (you can disable the auto update in system configurations).
2. Easy un-installation from program list.

Note: Auto updating is not avaiable for 64 bit version of PAT. We suggest you to download the latest version of 64 bit PAT from the website and install again.

[TOP]

2.2 Graphic User Interface

PAT comes with complete and user friendly graphic interface to make the tool handy to use.

The graphic user interface consists of the following parts to allow users to edit the model, simulate it and verify the properties of the model respectively. In this section, we
explain the GUI of the CSP module as the demonstrating example. The GUIs for other modules are similar.

- 2.2.1 PAT Editor
- 2.2.2 PAT Simulator
- 2.2.3 Graph Difference Analysis
- 2.2.4 PAT Verifier
- 2.2.5 New Model Wizard

The system options are explained [here](#).
2.2.1 2.2.1 PAT Editor

```csp
//@@ Dining Philosopher@@

/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
#define N 2:

Phil(i) = get.i.(i+1) % N -> get.i.i -> eat.i -> put.i.(i+1) % N -> put.(i+1) % N.
Fork(x) = get.x.x -> put.x.x -> Fork(x) [] get.(x-1) % N.x -> put.(x-1) % N.x -> Fork(x);
College() = ||x:(0..N-1) @(Phil(x)||Fork(x));
Implementation() = College() \ {get.0.0, get.0.1, put.0.0, put.0.1, eat.1, get.1.1,};
Specification() = eat.0 -> Specification();

/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
#assert College() deadlockfree;
#assert College() |= []<> eat.0;
#assert Implementation() refines Specification();
#assert Specification() refines Implementation();
#assert Implementation() refines <F> Specification();
#assert Specification() refines <F> Implementation();
#assert Implementation() refines <FD> Specification();
#assert Specification() refines <FD> Implementation();
```
From PAT 3.0 onwards, PAT Editor provides a more preferable and intelligent way of editing your model. The programmers' most favourable features are listed below. Meanwhile, PAT editor also provides key action buttons and the full set of document editing functions with a multi-document and I18N (multi-language) environment.

- **Keyword highlighting**
- **IntelliSense**
- **Model Explorer (F4)**
- **Go to Declaration Function (F12)**
- **Find Usage**
- **Rename (F2)**
A. The **Keyword highlighting**, as shown in the above figure, the keyword highlighting are explained as follows:

- the reserved **keywords** will be highlighted in blue.
• the **processes names** will be bold and highlighted in dark blue automatically.
• **Symbols** reserved for processes definition are shown in red.
• **LTL formulas** in assertions will be bold and shown in red.
• **Comments** are in green etc.

B. For the newly supported **intelliSense**, it can serve as an intelligent reminder for keywords when you are inputting your model:

• After you input an English letter for example 'a', it will automatically give out a list containing all keywords starting with 'a' and the explanation of the corresponding keyword. This is to better assist you in programming the model, and remind you the useful hints.
• After parsing the model, you will see the processes are also included in the list! See the figure above the process Specification() is in the list after checking grammar.

C. The **Go to Declaration (F12)** function is implemented for all **variables, processes, constants, declarations and channels** in all modules.

To use this function, follow the steps:
Select a word in the editor and press F12, editor will bring you to the definition of the word if there is one.

D. The **Model Explorer (F4)** function is recently supported for all modules. Press F4 to open the explorer window and click refresh button, all the constants, variables, processes etc. will be shown in the list. Parsing the model (by pressing F5) will also refresh the model explorer. To access a particular item, you only have to double click it. This function is extremely useful when the mode becomes quite big!

E. **Find Usage**: This function is to help user to quickly locate all the usage of the selected text. It is useful especially in the large models with lots of variables, processes etc. To use this function, right click the selected text and choose the Find Usage label in
the menu. For now, PAT is able to find usage for *declarations, processes, variables, channels and constants* in a model.

F. **Rename (F2):** Using renaming function when you want to systematically and safely change the name of a variable, it will automatically replace all the corresponding usage of the variable with the new name. To use this function, select a word (process name, variable, channel, constants and declaration) and press F2 (or right mouse click on the selected word and choose rename label in the menu). A popup window will show to ask for the new name. After you confirm, the changes will automatically apply to the whole model.

After input the model, the **four key actions** you can perform by click the corresponding buttons in the specification toolbar:

- **Check Grammar:** check whether the model has correct grammar. If the grammar is not accepted, there will be a pop-up of certain error message.
- **Simulation:** simulate the model using **simulator**. The grammar needs to be parsed first before the simulator to be shown.
- **Verification:** verify the assertions using **verifier**. The grammar needs to be parsed first before the verifier to be shown.
- **Graph Difference:** generate the graph grouping the similar states and transitions between two graphs. The grammar needs to be parsed first before the **graph difference analysis** to be shown.

PAT provides different **user interface languages**: Chinese (Simplified), Chinese (Traditional), English, Japanese, German and Vietnamese. You can switch between the languages under toolbar *View->Languages*. System will remember your choice next time it starts. Other languages will be added if there is a request.

The set of **document editing functions** are listed as follows:
- New: create a new model and open it in the Editor. New model wizard is also available now!
- Open: open an existing model.
- Save: save the model.
- Save As: save the model as another file.
- Email Model: email the current model to PAT team or friends.
- Print: print the model.
- LaTex Print: generate the LaTex text for the input model.
- Recent files: view your records of edited files recently.
- Exit: exit PAT by clicking it.

The set of **text editing functions** is listed as follows:

- Cut, Copy, Paste, Select All
- Find, Find Next, Replace
- Zoom in and Zoom out or 100% Text size
- Redo, Undo
- Goto Line
- Comment Selected Code: Make a block of codes as a comment for reference.
- Uncomment Selected Code: Uncomment block of codes.
- Outlining: Toggle the selected codes or toggle all the outlining for a clear view of your model. You can expand them by click the '+' symbol by the side of line number.
- Bookmark: Add bookmarks to your code to memorise your ideas. You can view the previous or next bookmark as well as deleting all the bookmarks through the editing functions.

The set of **featured editing functions** is listed as follows:

- Line Number Display
- Highlight Current Line
- Go to Previous Tab
• Go to Next Tab
• Close Current Tab
• Drag and Drop a model into PAT to open it quickly

2.2.2 2.2.2 PAT Simulator

PAT’s simulator allows users to interactively and visually simulate system behaviors. The simulator is made up of four parts: Toolbar on the top, Interaction Pane, Data Pane (showing the value of the variables at selected state) and Simulation Graph.

Select the process you want to simulate, the simulation tasks that can be performed are described as follows.

• Click the **Simulate** button to do a random simulation of the system. The simulator will randomly select one enabled event at current state to execute. The simulation will stop when there is no more enabled events are available or the number of the visited states is bigger than the limit. Current state is shown in red color in the graph.

• Double click the event in the "**Enabled Events**" list to perform the step-by-step simulation. The "Enabled Events" list will only show the enabled events for the current state (shown in red color in the graph). Events shown in blue color are unvisited events while black color are visited events for the current state.

• **Generate Graph** button will generate the complete state graph in one click. The number of states to be displayed is bounded by display limit (**300 by default**) to avoid the non-termination of the model.

• Select any state in the "**Event Trace**" list, then click the **Play Trace** button to play the trace automatically starting from the selected state. You may go back to any previous states.
• **Simulate Trace** button allows users to write a script to perform automatic simulation. After clicking it, a textbox is shown where you can write the event trace like `phil.0.0, phil.0.1, eat.0` or `a, b(5), tick`. Each event is separated by comma and `b(5)` means you can perform `b` 5 times.

• Click **Reset** button to reset the simulator to the initial state of the selected process.

**Note:** the number of states that can be generated is limited to 300 by default. You can change this number in the **system configurations**.

**Counterexample visualization:** Click the Simulate button in the **Verifier** to view the counterexample. If the counterexample belongs to a LTL assertion, you can also view the strongly connected component which generates the counterexample.

**Easter egg 🎉:** if you try the dining philosophers or sliding game example (in CSP Module) in PAT, you would see a picture of the board in the simulator. We are developing more pictures for other examples.

**Tips of using Simulator:**

• You can move your mouse over the state and transition in the graph to see the detailed information.
• You can drag the node and edges in the Simulation Graph.
• You can adjust the simulation speed in the toolbar settings button: very fast, fast, normal, slow, very slow.
• You can adjust the tooltip popup delay in the toolbar settings button: 5s, 10s, 20s, 40s, 60s.
• You can hide all the tau transitions in the toolbar settings button.
2.2.3 Graph Difference Analysis

PAT also provides an interesting interface to generate difference graph from two graphs generated in the Simulator. This function is developed to provide means for comparing the differences between similar processes. For instance, you can use this
tool to generate a difference graph with your system and the abstracted model of your system, or with the implementation and specification of your system.

The Graph Difference Analysis tool has several choices for different purposes of users. Configure the tool before starting using:

From the tool bar:

**Match Type**: Complete or Partial match.

**Match Result Display**: Integrated or Separate (See the figures in the last row).

**Graph Match Settings**: Match State Structure, Match Process Parameters, Match Event Details, Match if/guard Condition Expression; these four can be multiple choices;

**Generate Difference Graph**: press this button to generate the difference graph for previously chosen graphs.

**Match Result List**: this button provides a list of matching results including matched edges/nodes and unmatched edges/nodes in the left graph and the right graph.

Take the classic problem Dining Philosopher as an example, we generate the difference graph from the system graph and the implementation graph.

**First**, generate the desired processes in Simulator separately and then choose the corresponding graphs to be compared, such as the figure below:
Secondly, generate the difference graph in the Integrated(left) manner and the Separate(right) manner respectively.
2.2.4 PAT Verifier

PAT Verifier allows users to check the assertions listed in the model. The verification result will be shown in different highlighting colors such as red for the assertion which is not valid and green for the assertion which is valid. We provide two modes for verification, e.g. the click mode and the batch mode. Both of the two modes support the following options:

OPTIONS:
Admissible behaviors: This is essentially fairness type settings. PAT will automatically enable the suitable fairness options (not supported in Orc Module) for the user according to the model and the property selected. Notice that all fairness options are disabled except for LTL assertions. For more information, please refer to section 4.1 Fairness and [SUNLDP09].

- **No Fairness**: By default, this option is selected. In this setting, no fairness assumption is applied to the system (even for event-annotated fairness).

- **Process Level Weak Fairness**: Selecting this option means that for every process in the system, if it is eventually always enabled, it must eventually always occur. This option is similar to the one in SPIN. This option is only enabled, if the system to be checked is an interleave or parallel composition.

- **Process Level Strong Local Fairness**: Selecting this option means that for every process in the system, if it is always eventually enabled, it must eventually always occur. This option is only enabled, if the system to be checked is an interleave or parallel composition.

- **Strong Global Fairness**: Selecting this option means to apply strong global fairness to the system, i.e., each transition must eventually always occur if it is always eventually enabled.

Verification Engine: For all safety properties (e.g. deadlockfree, reachability, refinement relation), in explicit model checking, PAT performs Depth-First-Search to explore the state space for the purpose of fast verification. However, if there is any counterexample, it is desired to have the shortest trace to find the bug quickly. Hence, we provide this option to user such that PAT performs Breadth-First-Search to find the shortest witness trace. Similarly symbolic model checking provides 3 search engines. These search engines are both breadth first search with different directions.

- Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward Search Strategy: check the safety property starting from the initial state, and go forward to check whether bad states can be reachable from the initial state.
- Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Backward Search Strategy: check the safety property starting from the *bad states* and go backward to check whether the initial state is reachable.

- Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward-Backward Search Strategy: check the safety property starting from both initial state and bad states. At each step, it will go forward from the initial state direction and go backward from the bad state direction.

Some other choices are provided for specific properties such as *Strongly Connected Component Based Search* (explicit model checking) and *Symbolic Model Checking using BDD* for liveness properties. Please refer to Assertion page in the each module's subsection of Language Reference in Section 3.

**Time Out:** This option allows you to limit the running time. If it is set to 0, then system can run as long as it got a result or out of memory. If it is set to a number greater than 0 then system will stop in due time if it hasn't got any result.

**Generate Witness Trace:** This option is provided to get the model checking result without the counter example if exists.

**MODES:**

**Click Mode:** Use this mode to verify the properties, you have to manually click the assertions one by one and choose the additional options described above.

**Note:** Multiple assertion selection is supported from the version 3.4.
Batch Mode: Use this mode, you can get all the properties of a batch of model files verified with certain choices of options in one time. The whole verification result will be written into an output file you defined. These results can also be converted to excel files by clicking the button "Generate Excel Report".
To use this function, you can click the Tools tab in PAT's Editor, and select Verification (Batch Mode).

2.2.5 New Model Wizard
To help the users to quickly start composing models, PAT provides a New Model Wizard as listed as follows. Users can quickly generate model templates based on the selection of modeling language and templates.

2.3 System Options

The option manual in PAT has the following settings:

**General:**

1. Auto-check for updates when PAT starts.
2. Auto save models when starting to do the simulation, verification and so on. This will help user to keep the latest model in case of system failure. Uncheck it in case you find this option is annoying.
3. Default Modeling Language is used to decide the modeling language when the user clicking the New Button in the toolbar. The default modeling language is set to be CSP Model here.

4. Specific model like CSP(RTS) Module, Web Service Model can also be configured. See the right-handside figure

**Simulation:**

1. The maximum number of states to be displayed in the simulator. Default value is 300. More than 300 nodes in the simulator is hard to read usually.

**Verification:**

1. The initial size of the hash table used for the verification. Default value is $2^{20}$. If your model is small, then do not change it. But if your model is large to be like more than million of states, change this value to a bigger one would be better.
2.3.1 BDD Settings

The BDD Settings is provided for user to set the special variable ranges. The BDD performance is better if the provided variable ranges are more tight.

This tab includes 3 kinds of variables

- The first two settings Variable Lower Bound/ Variable Upper Bound are used to set the default variable range when the variable range is not provided in the program.

For example:

```
var a:{0..2} = 0;
```
var b = 0;

According to the declaration, variable a's values are between 0 and 2 while b is not provided the variable range, it will receive the default variable range in the BDD Setting option tab which is {0..32}

- The next three settings are used to set for the channel message. Maximum Channel Message Length is the maximum of the channel message length where channel message length is the number of parameters in a Channel Out message, i.e., c!0.1.2 has the channel message length 3. Message Lower Bound/ Message Upper Bound is the minimum/maximum values for parameters in the Channel Out message.

- Event Parameter Lower Bounds/ Event Parameter Upper Bounds are provided to define the maximum number of parameter in an event name and the minimum/maximum values of each parameter. According the current setting, the maximum number of event parameters is 2 and each parameter is in the range {0..10}. Therefore event names like event1.a, event2.i.j, and event3.0 are acceptable. Using event name having more than 2 parameters like event4.a.b.c or out of range parameters like event5.11 causes wrong result.
2.4 2.4 LTL to Automata Converter

PAT provides a useful tool to convert LTL formulae to Büchi Automata/Rabin Automata/Streett Automata under toolbar *Tools*. 
2.5 Using C# (C/C++/Java) Code as Libraries

Sometimes, it is difficult and inefficient to write some functions (e.g., Maths calculation methods) or advanced data structures (e.g. Array, Stack, Queue and so on) using PAT's syntax. To make this easier, PAT allows user to define static functions and user defined data type in C# (C/C++/Java) language and use them in the models. These C# classes are built as DLL and loaded when models import them. Once they are defined, you can use them directly in any models.
**Note:** the method names are case sensitive.

PAT provides the management interface for C# libraries. Click **Tool->C# Library Editor and Compiler** button in the toolbar menu, the following window will pop-up. You can define your own functions. After input the functions, you can build the code and use it immediately. You can write C# codes and compile them easily in this window.

The functions of the buttons are explained as follows:

- **New Library:** load the template for creating static library.
- **New Data Type:** load the template for creating user defined data type.
- **Open C# Code:** load an existing C# code into the editor.
- **Save:** save the text in the editor into C# code.
- **Build DLL:** build the code in the editor into a DLL, the default location of the DLL will be the Lib folder under installation folder. Error messages will be shown if there is any error during the compilation.
- **Close:** close the editor.
PAT also provides another way to open the imported library. You can select the imported library path and then right click the button, choose "open import/include file" function to open it. This function can recognize absolute path, relative path to the current model file, and inside lib folder of pat installation.
2.5.1 External Static Methods

Some complicated calculations (e.g., algorithms, data operations and computations) are difficult to implement in PAT’s modeling language. It is easier to write them using programming language like C#. We provide user such option to implement the calculations using C# static methods and invoke these methods in PAT.
The following is one simple example of showing how to write static methods in C#.

```csharp
using System.Collections.Generic;
using PAT.Common.Classes.Expressions.ExpressionClass;

// the namespace must be PAT.Lib, the class and method names can be arbitrary
namespace PAT.Lib {
    public class PatList {
        public static int[] ListAdd(int[] list, int element) {
            List<int> newList = new List<int>(list);
            newList.Add(element);
            return newList.ToArray();
        }

        public static bool ListContains(int[] list, int element) {
            foreach (int i in list) {
                if (i == element) {
                    return true;
                }
            }
            return false;
        }
    }
}
```

Note the following requirements when you create your own libraries:

- The namespace must be "PAT.Lib", otherwise it will not be recognized. There is no restriction for class names and method names.
- Importing the PAT Expression name space using "using PAT.Common.Classes.Expressions.ExpressionClass;".
- All methods should be declared as public static. You can also use (private) static variables and functions to support your methods.
- The parameters must be of type "bool", "int", "int[]" (int array) or object (object type allows user to pass user defined data type as parameter).
- The number of parameters can be 0 or many.
- The return type must be of type "void", "bool", "int", "short", "byte", "int[]" (int array) or user defined data type.
- The method names are case-sensitive.
- Put the compiled DLLs in "Lib" folder of the PAT installation directory to make the linking easy by using #import "DLL_Name"; or you can put the DLLs under same folder as the model. If the DLLs are put in other places, you need to put the full path of the DLLs after import keyword.
- To import math library, please use #import "PAT.Math";

If your methods need to handle exceptional cases, you can throw PAT runtime exceptions as illustrated as the following example.

```csharp
public static int StackPeek(int[] array) {
    if (array.Length > 0)
        return array[array.Length - 1];

    //throw PAT Runtime Exception
}
```

To import the libraries in your model, users can using following syntax:

- #import "PAT.Lib.Set"; //to import a library under Lib folder of PAT installation path
- #import "C:\Program Files\Intel\Set.dll"; //to import a library using absolute path

< syntax: following use please models, your in methods C# invoke the>
- \( x = \text{call}(\text{Max}, 10, 2); \)
- \( \text{if} (\text{call}(\text{dominate}, 3, 2))... \)
- \( y = \text{call}(\text{ArrayMax}, [1,3,5]); \)

Note: the method names are case sensitive.

The built-in C# math functions you can use are listed as follows:

- int Abs(int d)
- int BigMul(int a, int b)
- int Exp(int d)
- int Max(int val1, int val2)
- int Min(int val1, int val2)
- int Pow(int val1, int val2)
- int Sqrt(int d)
- int Round(int a)

2.5.2 User Defined Data Type

PAT only supports integer, Boolean and integer arrays for the purpose of efficient verification. However, advanced data structures (e.g., Stack, Queue, Hashtable and so on) are necessary for some models. To support arbitrary data structures, PAT provides an interface to create user defined data type by inheriting an abstract class ExpressionValue.

The following is one simple example showing how to create a hashtable in C#.

```csharp
using System.Collections;
using System.Collections.Generic;
using System.Linq;
using PAT.Common.Classes.Expressions.ExpressionClass;

//the namespace must be PAT.Lib, the class and method names can be
```
namespace PAT.Lib {

    public class HashTable : ExpressionValue {

        public Hashtable table;

        /// Default constructor without any parameter must be implemented
        public HashTable() {
            table = new Hashtable();
        }

        public HashTable(Hashtable newTable) {
            table = newTable;
        }

        public void Add(int key, int value) {
            if (!table.ContainsKey(key)) {
                table.Add(key, value);
            }
        }

        public bool ContainsKey(int key) {
            return table.ContainsKey(key);
        }

        public int GetValue(int key) {
            return (int)table[key];
        }

        /// Return the string representation of the hash table.
        /// This method must be overridden
        public override string ToString() {
            string returnString = "";
            foreach (DictionaryEntry entry in table) {
                returnString += entry.Key.ToString();
            }
            return returnString;
        }
    }
}
/// Return a deep clone of the hash table

/// NOTE: this must be a deep clone, shallow clone may lead to strange behaviors.

/// This method must be overridden

public override ExpressionValue GetClone()
{
    return new HashTable(new Hashtable(table));
}

/// Return the compact string representation of the hash table.

/// This method must be overridden

/// Smart implementation of this method can reduce the state space and speedup verification

public override string ExpressionID
{
    string returnString = "";
    foreach (DictionaryEntry entry in table)
    {
        returnString += entry.Key + "=" + entry.Value + "\n";
    }
    return returnString;
}
}
Note the following requirements when you create your own data structure objects:

- The namespace must be "PAT.Lib", otherwise it will not be recognized. There is no restriction for class names and method names.
- Importing the PAT Expression name space using "using PAT.Common.Classes.Expressions.ExpressionClass;".
- Only public methods can be used in PAT models.
- The parameters must be of type "bool", "int", "int[]" (int array) or object (object type allow user to pass user defined data type as parameter).
- Object type parameter are passed by reference, i.e., if the method changes the parameter values, the effect will stay in the PAT model.
- The number of parameters can be 0 or many.
- The return type must be of type "void", "bool", "int", "short", "byte", "int[]" (int array) or user defined data type.
- The method names are case sensitive.
- Put the compiled DLLs in "Lib" folder of the PAT installation directory to make the linking easy by using #import "DLL_Name"; or you can put the DLLs under same folder as the model. If the DLLs are put in other places, you need to put the full path of the DLLs after import keyword.

If your methods need to handle exceptional cases, you can throw PAT runtime exceptions as illustrated as the following example.

```csharp
public static int StackPeek(int[] array)
{
    if (array.Length > 0)
        return array[array.Length - 1];

    //throw PAT RuntimeException
}
```

To import the libraries in your model, users can using following syntax:
• #import "PAT.Lib.Hashtable"; //to import a library under Lib folder of PAT installation path
• #import "C:\Program Files\Intel\Hashtable.dll"; //to import a library using absolute path

To declare the user defined types in your models, please use the following syntax:

• var <HashTable> table; //use the class name here as the type of the variable.
• var <HashTable> table = new HashTable(4); //initialize the variable using the constructors provided.

To invoke the public methods in your models, please use the following syntax:

• table.Add(10, 2); //public method invocation
• if(table.ContainsKey(10))... //public method invocation with return values
• table$column //public field or property reading and writing

Note that there is no difference between user defined types and normal variables (e.g. var x =1;). Only when the process parameter is used as user defined types, it is user's responsibility to make sure that the correct variable type is passed in since most of PAT modules don't have explicit types. See the example below.

```plaintext
#import "PAT.Lib.Set"
var <Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = initialize{i.Add(1);}-> ([i.GetSize() > 0] Skip);
```

Warning:

When the user defined data variable (declared as global variable) is used in conditions (if-then-else/guard/while-loop), the operation should be side-effect free. One example is the guard expression "iGetSize() > 0"Otherwise the verification results may not be correct.
When user defined data structure is used as process parameter, if the parameter in the process updates the data structure, the verification/simulation maybe wrong and unexpected. For instance the following example, i is an object used in both branch of the choice operator, so the effect of executing add1 will stay even the actual branch selected is add2. In the simulator, you will find that after executing event add2, the value of set1 can become [1,2]. The root of this cause is the pointer problem. PAT will give warnings for such usage during parsing. It is user's responsibility to make sure the usage is correct.

```csharp
#import "PAT.Lib.Set";

var<Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = add1{i.Add(1);} -> Skip [] add2{i.Add(2);} -> Skip;
```

2.5.3 2.5.3 Using Microsoft Contracts.htm

PAT integrates the runtime checking of Microsoft Code Contracts in the external C# codes. To use Contracts in your classes, you only need to choose the "contract" when you build the DLL. In your code, contracts methods can be simply used as the normal way: pre-condition, post-condition, invariant and assertions.

We are experimenting this feature. Please see DBM testing example in PAT for more information.

2.5.4 2.5.4 Using C/C++ Code in PAT

Some complicated calculations (e.g., algorithms, data operations and computations) are difficult to implement in PAT's modeling language. Beside supporting calling C# methods, we also allow users to call C/C++ functions in PAT.
Suppose you have a C/C++ library, all you need is to create a C# interface using that library and then call C# interface as External Static Method. Requirements to the C# external static methods are also applied to the C/C++ functions.

Example:

You have a C function in the Plus.dll which return the sum of 2 integer numbers

```c
extern "C" __declspec( dllexport ) plus(int a, int b);
```

For more information about how to export a C function, you may want to refer to Exporting from a DLL Using __declspec(dllexport). The basic idea is adding "extern "C" __declspec( dllexport )" before the interface declaration to mark it as be exported to the DLL.

You want to call this function in PAT. Firstly, you need to create an C# interface provoking this function. You may want to try as below:

```csharp
public class CMethodDemo {

    [DllImport(@"Lib\Plus.dll")]

    public static extern int plus(int a, int b);

}
```

To call a DLL from C#, we need to declare a method as having an implementation from that DLL with the static and extern C# keywords. Then you need to attach the DllImport attribute to the method. For deeper understanding, following the tutorial Platform Invoke Tutorial from MSDN.

Then you build this as CMethodDemo.dll, put it and Plus.dll under "Lib" folder of the PAT installation directory. Last you can follow the External Static Methods to use this C# interface. Below is the PAT model using this feature. You can try this example in PAT, under CSP -> "Demonstrating Example" -> "C Library Demonstrating Example".

```csharp
#import "PAT.Lib.CMethodDemo";

var x;

System = event{x = call.plus(1,2);} -> out.x -> Skip;

#assert System() deadlockfree;
```
2.6 2.6 Keyboard Shortcuts

The set of document editing functions are listed as follows:

- New (Ctrl+N)
- Open (Ctrl+O)
- Save (Ctrl+S)
- Print (Ctrl+P)

The set of text editing functions is listed as follows:

- Redo (Ctrl+Y)
- Undo (Ctrl+Z)
- Cut (Ctrl+X)
- Copy (Ctrl+C)
- Paste (Ctrl+V)
- Select All (Ctrl+A)
- Find (Ctrl+F)
- Find Next (F3)
- Replace (Ctrl+H)
- Goto Line (Ctrl+G)
- Comment Selection (Ctrl + Shift + C)
- Uncomment Selection (Ctrl + Shift + U)
- Toggle Outlining (Ctrl + T)
- Toggle All Outlinings (Ctrl + Shift + T)
- Toggle Bookmark (Ctrl + B)

The set of featured editing functions is listed as follows:

- Go to Previous Tab (Ctrl+Shift+Tab)
- Go to Next Tab (Ctrl+Tab)
After input the model, the three key actions you can perform by click the corresponding buttons:

- Help (F1)
- Rename (F2)
- Model Explorer (F4)
- Check Grammar (F5)
- Simulation (F6)
- Verification (F7)
- Graph Difference Analysis (F8)
- Output Window (F9)
- Goto Declaration (F12)

2.7 Command Line

PAT also supports running verification from the Console which is always favored by programmers. And running from batch files using Console is extremely useful when you have to run a batch of examples which spares you from starting at the monitor and clicking the mouse all the way.

The main usage of command line is of the following format:

```
PAT.Console.exe [module] [options]* inputFile outputFile
```

for example: PAT.Console.exe -csp -sp DiningPhilosopher.csp result.txt .

For [module] part, the paragraph below lists all the supported commands corresponding to different modules:
- **csp**: Verification using CSP Module. If there is no module option is given, this is the default one.
- **rts**: Verification using Real-Time System Module.
- **pcsp**: Verification using Probabilistic CSP Module.
- **prts**: Verification using Probabilistic Real-Time System Module.
- **module short name**: Put the short name of your module, which should be the folder name of your module.

For [options] part, here is the list for all the choices:

- **-b**: (B)atch mode, the inputFile will be the batch file containing lines of examples. Each line shall have the following format: `-f inputFile`
- **-d**: (D)irectory mode, the inputFile shall be the input directory name. All examples inside the directory will be executed. Please use only -b or -d
- **-behavior n**: specify the admissible behavior as integer value n. Default value is 0.
- **-engine n**: specify the search engine as integer value n. Default value is 0.
- **-help**: print HELP information.
- **-nc**: (N)o (C)ounterexample display.
- **-on**: (O)n-the-fly Normalization. Suggest not to use, since static normalization is usually faster.
- **-v**: (V)erbose mode.
- **-ver**: (VER)sion.

The UML related of command line usage is of the following two formats:

```
PAT.Console.exe -uml inputFile outputFile
```

The command firstly translates inputFile into a CSP# model and outputs the CSP# model to outputFile.
PAT.Console.exe -uml inputFile1 inputFile2 outputFile

The command firstly translates inputFile1 and inputFile2 into two CSP# models respectively, say input1 and input2, then verifies whether input1 refines input2 in the trace semantics, i.e. the assertion "#assert input1 refines input2", and outputs the result to outputFile.

[TOP]

3. 3 Process Analysis Toolkit

Critical system requirements like safety, liveness and fairness play important roles in software/system specification, development and testing. It is desirable to have handy tools to simulate the system behaviors and verify critical properties. Process Analysis Toolkit (also known as PAT) is design to apply state-of-the-art model checking techniques for system analysis. It supports reachability analysis, deadlock-freeness analysis, full LTL (linear temporal logic) model checking, refinement checking as well as a powerful simulator. It is a user-friendly model checker for Windows users.

Starting from PAT 2.0, we applied a layered design to support the analysis of the different system/languages. The figure below shows the architecture design of PAT. For each supported system (e.g., distributed system, service oriented computing, bio-system, security protocols, sensor network and real-time system), a dedicated module is created in PAT, which identifies the (specialized) language syntax, well-formness rules as well as (operational) formal semantics. The formally defined operational semantics of the target language translates the behaviors of a model into a Labeled Transition System (LTS). During this translation, domain specific abstraction can be applied to the input model, e.g., data abstraction, zone abstraction and environment abstraction. LTS serves as the internal representations of the input models, which can be automatically explored by the verification algorithms or used for simulation. If there is any counterexample is identified, then it can be animated in the simulator. The
This architecture allows new languages to be developed easily by providing the syntax rules and semantics. Till now, eleven modules have been developed, namely Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) Module, Real-Time System Module, Probability CSP Module, Probability RTS Module, Labeled Transition System Module, Timed Automata Module, NesC Module, ORC Module, Stateflow(MDL) Module, Security Module and Web Service (WS) Module. In the future, our targeted systems include distributed systems, UML (state chart and sequence diagrams) and so on.

The main functionalities of PAT are listed as follows:
- User friendly editing environment (multi-document, multi-language, I18N GUI and advanced syntax editing features) for introducing models
- User friendly simulator for interactively and visually simulating system behaviors; by random simulation, user-guided step-by-step simulation, complete state graph generation, trace playback, counterexample visualization, etc.
- Easy verification for deadlock-freeness analysis, reachability analysis, state/event linear temporal logic checking (with or without fairness) and refinement checking.
- A wide range of built-in examples ranging from benchmark systems to newly developed algorithms/protocols.

PAT has been applied to a variety of different systems to prove properties or identifying bugs. Indeed, previously unknown bugs have been found using PAT. We have successfully demonstrated PAT as an analyzer for process algebras in the 30th International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE 2008) [LiuSD08] and the 21st International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV 2009) [SunLDP09]. In summary, PAT is a self-contained framework for automated analysis on concurrent and real-time systems.

[TOP]

3.1 3.1 Communicating Sequential Programs (CSP#) module

PAT's CSP# module supports a rich modeling language named CSP# (pronounced 'CSP sharp', short for Communicating Sequential Programs) which combines high-level modeling operators like (conditional or non-deterministic) choices, interrupt, (alphabetized) parallel composition, interleaving, hiding, asynchronous message passing channel, etc., with programmer-favored low-level constructs like variables, arrays, if-then-else, while, etc.. It offers great flexibility on how to model your systems. For instance, communication among processes can be either based on shared memory (using global variables) or message passing (using asynchronous message passing or CSP-style multi-party barrier synchronization). The high-level operators are based
on the classic process algebra *Communicating Sequential Processes* (CSP). Our design principle for CSP# is to maximally keep the original CSP as a sub-language of CSP#, whilst offering a connection to the data states and executable data operations.

The above illustrates the work flow of the CSP Module. System analysis in PAT is supported in two ways, namely, simulation or model checking. The visualized simulator allows the users to interactively play with their models, by choosing one of the enabled actions at a time, let the computer to generate system traces randomly or even build the complete state graph (given it is not very large). The model checkers embedded in PAT are designed to apply state-of-the-art model checking techniques for systematic analysis. Users can state assertions in various forms, and by just clicking one button, PAT would tell whether the assertion is true or not (in which case a counterexample is generated and ready to be simulated). PAT has a number of different model checking algorithms for efficient verification of different properties. For instance, an efficient depth-first-algorithm is used to verify safety properties by identifying a bad state, an SCC-based algorithm is used to verify liveness properties by identifying a bad loop and
an SCC-based algorithm to verify liveness properties under fairness by identifying a fair bad loop (refer to our paper [SUNLDP09] for detail).

CSP module is distinguished in a number of aspects from existing model checkers. In the following, we briefly introduce the two of them. To reveal the full details, please refer to our publications.

The LTL model checking algorithm in PAT is designed to handle a variety of fairness constraints efficiently. This is partly motivated by recently developed population protocols, which only work under weak, strong local/global fairness. The other motivation is that the current practice of verification is deficient under fairness. Two different approaches for verification under fairness are supported in PAT, targeting different users. For ordinary users, one of the following options may be chosen and applied to the whole system: weak fairness or strong local/global fairness. The model checking algorithm works by identifying the fair execution at a time and checks whether the desirable property is satisfied. Notice that unfair executions are considered unrealistic and therefore are not considered as counterexamples. Because of the fairness, nested depth-first-search is not feasible and therefore the algorithm is based on an improved version of Tarjan's algorithm for identifying strongly connected components. We have successfully applied it to prove or disprove (with a counterexample) a range of systems where fairness is essential. In general, however, system level fairness may sometimes be overwhelming. The worst case complexity is high and, much worse, partial order reduction is not feasible for model checking under strong local/global fairness. A typical scenario for network protocols is that fairness constraints are associated with only messaging but not local actions. We thus support an alternative approach, which allows users annotate individual actions with fairness. Notice that this option is only for advanced users who know exactly which part of the system needs fairness constraints. Nevertheless this approach is much more flexible, i.e., different parts of the system may have different fairness. Furthermore, it allows partial order reduction over actions which are irrelevant to the fairness constraints, which allows us to handle much larger systems.
LTL formulas assert properties over each and every single execution of the system, PAT allows users to reason about behaviors of a system as a whole by refinement checking. Refinement checking is to verify whether an implementation's behaviors follow the specifications. PAT supports six notions of refinements based on different semantics, namely trace refinement, stable failures refinement, failures divergence refinement and each of the above refinement augmented with data refinement. A refinement checking algorithm (inspired by the one implemented in FDR but extended with partial order reduction) is used to perform refinement checking on-the-fly. Refinement checking in FDR only compares the traces (e.g., event sequences) of the implementation and the specification. For practical systems (other than those specified with process algebra), it may be desirable to also compare the data structures. For instance, linearizability is an important correctness criteria for concurrent data structure. Informally, it requires that the data structure accessed by multiple processes concurrently must be updated as if the processes access it sequentially. To establish a refinement relationship, not only the event of accessing the data structure must be compared between a sequential specification and a concurrent implementation, but also the data structure itself must be checked. We thus provide a user option to state whether to check for data refinement.

3.1.1 3.1.1 Language Reference

The input language of CSP Module CSP# is mainly influenced by the classic Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP [Hoare85]). Nonetheless, we extend CSP with various useful language features to reach our goal. Examples include shared variables, arrays, asynchronous message passing channels and event annotations which capture a variety of fairness constraints.

Our modeling language is designed for automated system analysis. There are two other popular modeling languages working for the same purpose, namely machine
readable CSP (which we will refer to as CSP\textsubscript{M}) supported by the refinement checker FDR \cite{AWR97} and Promela which is supported by the model checker SPIN \cite{GJH97}.

- Compared to CSP\textsubscript{M}, CSP\# supports additional language features like shared variables, asynchronous communication channels and event associated programs, which offers users great flexibility in modeling. Furthermore, we give an interpretation of state/event Linear Temporal Logic in CSP\# semantics framework, which allows temporal logic based model checking of CSP\# models.

- Compared to Promela, CSP\# supports more process constructs, i.e., Promela is based on a subset of CSP, whereas all CSP models are valid CSP\# models. In particular, CSP\# inherits the classic trace, stable failures and failures/divergence semantics from CSP, and therefore, allows us to perform a variety of refinement checking. CSP\# is also remotely related to other languages which are designed for model checking.

The language constructs of CSP\# may be categorized into the following groups.

- The first group is the core subset of CSP operators, including event-prefixing, internal/external choices, alphabetized lock-step synchronization, conditional branching, interrupt, recursion, etc.

- The second group includes those language constructs which can be regarded as "syntactic sugar" (to CSP), including global shared variables, and asynchronous channels. It has long been known that CSP is capable of modeling shared variables or asynchronous channels as processes. However, the dedicated language constructs offer great usability and may make the verification more efficient.

- The third group is a set of event annotations. It is known that process algebra like CSP or CCS specifies safety only. The event annotations offer a flexible way of modeling fairness using an event based compositional language.

- The last group is the language for stating assertions, which later may be automatically verified using the built-in verifiers.
The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules and process laws can be found in Section 3.1.1.5 and Section 3.1.1.6 respectively.

3.1.1.1 Global Definitions

- Model Name
- Global Constants
- Global Variables/Arrays
- Asynchronous Channels
- Macro

3.1.1.2 Process Definitions

- Stop
- Skip
- Event Prefixing
- Statement Block inside Events
- Channel Input/Output
- Sequential Composition
- External/Internal Choice
- Conditional Choice
- Case
- Guarded Processes
- Interleaving
- Parallel Composition
- Interrupt
- Hiding
- Atomic Sequence
- Recursion
- Assert

3.1.1.3 Assertions
• Deadlock-freeness
• Divergence-free
• Reachability Analysis
• Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)
• Refinement/Equivalence

[TOP]

3.1.1.1 Global Definitions

Model Name

First of all, you can give a name for your model using the following syntax in the first line of your model. The model name is used internally as an ID for simulator to find the correct drawing pictures, if any. It is optional.

```//@@Model Name@@```

Constants

A global constant is defined using the following syntax,

```
#define max 5;
```

`#define` is a keyword used for multiple purposes. Here it defines a global constant named `max`, which has the value 5. The semi-colon marks the end of the 'sentence'.

Note: the constant value can only be integer value (both positive and negative) and Boolean value (`true` or `false`).

Constant enumeration can be defined using keyword `enum`. For example, `enum {red, blue, green};` is the syntactic sugar for the following:

```
#define red 0;
```
Variables/arrays

A global variable is defined using the following syntax,

```plaintext
var knight = 0;
```

where `var` is a key word for defining a variable and `knight` is the variable name. Initially, `knight` has the value 0. Semi-colon is used to mark the end of the 'sentence' as above. We remark the input language of PAT is weakly typed and therefore no typing information is required when declaring a variable. Cast between incompatible types may result in a run-time exception.

A fixed-size array may be defined as follows,

```plaintext
var board = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];
```

where `board` is the array name and its initial value is specified as the sequence, e.g., `board[0] = 3`. The following defines an array of size 3.

```plaintext
var leader[3];
```

All elements in the array are initialized to be 0.

**Note for multi-dimensional array:** PAT supports multi-dimensional arrays by converting them into one dimensional arrays. You can declare and use multi-dimensional arrays as follows (Note that here, the N should be a constant). The only restriction is that you can not assign multi-dimensional array constant to multi-dimensional arrays variables. To initialize a multi-dimensional array, you need to do it explicitly in some events.

```plaintext
var matrix[3*N][10];
```
Note: To assign values to specific elements in an array, you can use event prefix. For example:

\[ P() = a \{ \text{matrix}[1][9] = 0 \} \rightarrow \text{Skip}; \]

**Variable range specification**: users can provide the range of the variables/arrays explicitly by giving lower bound or upper bound or both. In this way, the model checkers and simulator can report the out-of-range violation of the variable values to help users to monitor the variable values. The syntax of specifying range values are demonstrated as follows.

- `var knight : {0..} = 0;`
- `var board : {0..10} = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];`
- `var leader[N] : {..N-1}; //where N is a constant defined.

**Array Initialization**: To ease the modeling, PAT supports fast array initialization using following syntax.

- `#define N 2;`
- `var array = [1(2), 3..6, 7(N*2), 12..10];`
- `//the above is same as the following`
- `var array = [1, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7, 7, 7, 12, 11, 10];`

In the above syntax, 1(2) and 7(N*2) allow user to quickly create an array with same initial values. 3..6 and 12..10 allow user to write quick increasing and decreasing loop to initialize the array.

**User defined type**: To ease the modeling, PAT allows users to define any data structures and use them in PAT models. The following shows the syntax.

- `var<Type> x; //default constructor of Type class will be called.
- `var<Type> x = new Type(1, 2); //constructor with two int parameters will be called.`
**Hidden variable**: To simplify the model, PAT introduces the hidden variables which can be used as normal variables. The only difference is that hidden variable is a kind of secondary variable, which is not included in the state details. The idea of secondary is to use redundant variable to make the modeling easier.

- `var a; var b;`
- `hvar difference; //secondary variable to store the difference between a and b.

**Note**: It is user's responsibility to make sure that hidden variables don't introduce any new states. If you not sure about this, you can change hvar to var to see any difference in terms of states in the simulation or verification.

**Channels**

In PAT, process may communicate through message passing on channels. A channel is declared as follows,

```
channel c 5;
```

where `channel` is a key word for declaring channels only, `c` is the channel name and 5 is the channel buffer size; Channel buffer size must be greater or equal to 0. Notice that a channel with buffer size 0 sends/receives messages synchronously. This is used to model pair-wise synchronization, which involves two parties. Barrier-synchronization, which involves multiple parties, is supported by following CSP's approach, i.e., *alphabetized parallel composition*.

**Note**: Currently, channel array is also supported.

```
channel c[4] 5;
```

**Macro**

In addition, the key word `#define` may be used to define macro. For instance,
```c
#define goal x == 0;
```

where `goal` is the name of the macro and `x == 0` is what `goal` means. A macro name is used in the same way as global constant is used. For instance, given the above definition, we may write the following,

```c
if (goal) { P } else { Q };
```

which means if the value of `x` is 0 then do `P` else do `Q`. We remark that macro can be used in LTL formulae.

Furthermore, macro can take in parameters as defined below. When calling the macro, the keyword `call` is used. The macro expression can be any possible expression in PAT (if, local variable declaration, while, assignment).

```c
#define multi(i,j) i*j;
```

```c
System = if (call(multi, 3,4) >12 ) { a -> Skip } else { b -> Skip };
```

Note that following usage of macro definitions are allowed in PAT, which means that macro definitions can be a fragment of code to be used in the model.

- `var x = 0;`
  - `var y = 0;`
  - `var z = 0;`
- `#define reset1 {x = 0; y = 0};`
  - `#define reset(i) {x = i; y = i};`
- `P = e1{z = 0; reset1} -> Skip;`
  - `Q = e2{z = 2; call(reset, 1}) -> Skip;`

**Model Inclusion**

If the model is too big, you can split the model to several files and include them in the main model by using the `include` keyword. For example,
#include "c:\example.csp";

If the model is in the same folder of the main model, you can only put the file name. Note that: Nested inclusion in files are also possible in PAT, and duplicated inclusion will be ignored.

To open the included file, you can select the file path, then right click the button and choose "open import/include file" function to open it. This function can recognize both absolute path and relative path to the current model file. The picture below shows how to open an included file.
3.1.1.2 Process Definitions

A process is defined as an equation in the following syntax,

\[ P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = Exp; \]

where \( P \) is the process name, \( x_1, ..., x_n \) is an optional list of process parameters and \( Exp \) is a process expression. The process expression determines the computational logic of the process. A process without parameters is written either as \( P() \) or \( P \). A defined process may be referenced by its name (with the valuations of the parameters). Process referencing allows a flexible form of recursion.

**Stop**

The deadlock process is written as follows,

\[ \text{Stop} \]

The process does absolutely nothing.

**Skip**

The process which terminates immediately is written as follows,

\[ \text{Skip} \]

The process terminates and then behaves exactly the same as *Stop*.

**Event prefixing**

A simple event is a name for representing an observation. Given a process \( P \), the following describes a process which performs \( e \) first and then behaves as specified by process \( P \).
$e \rightarrow P$

where $e$ is an event. An event is the abstraction of an observation. Event prefixing is a common construct for describing systems. The following describes a simple vending machine which takes in a coin and dispatches a coffee every time.

\[ VM() = \text{insertcoin} \rightarrow \text{coffee} \rightarrow VM(); \]

Where event \text{insertcoin} models the event of inserting a coin into the machine and event \text{coffee} models the event of getting coffee out of the machine. An event may be in a compound form, e.g., $x.exp1.exp2$ where $x$ is a name and $exp1$ and $exp2$ are expressions which are composed variables (e.g., process parameters, channel input variables or global variables). For instance,

\[ Phil(i) = \text{get.i.(i+1)\%N} \rightarrow \text{Rest}(); \]

where $i$ is a parameter of the process. We remark event expressions which contains global variables, though allowed, may result in runtime exception if combined with alphabetized parallel composition. Refer to parallel composition for details.

**Note:** event name is an arbitrary string of form (‘a’..'z'|'A'..'Z'|'_') (‘a’..'z'|'A'..'Z'|'0'..'9'|'_')*. However, global variable names, global constant names, process names, process parameter names, propositions names can not be used as event name. One exception is the channel names are allowed, because we may want to use channel name in a specific process to simulate the channel behaviors and use refinement checking to compare with real channel events.

**Statement Block inside Events (aka Data Operations)**

An event can be attached with assignments which update global variables as in the following example,

\[ add(x = x+1;) \rightarrow \text{Stop}; \]
where \( x \) is a global variable.

In general, an event may be attached with a statement block of a sequential program (which may contain local variables, if-then-else, while, \textit{math function} etc.). This kind of event-prefix process is called \textbf{data operation} in PAT. The exact syntax of the statements can be found in \textbf{Grammar Rules}. Notice that the sequential program is considered as an atomic action. That is, no interleaving of other processes before the sequential program finishes. In other words, once started, the sequential program continues to execute until it finished without being interrupted. From another point of view, the event can be viewed as a labeled piece of code. The event name is used for constructing meaningful counterexamples (or associating fairness with the code, as discussed below). For instance, the following process can be used to find the maximum value of a given array.

- \texttt{var array = \{0,2,4,7,1,3\};}
- \texttt{var max = -1;}
- \texttt{P() = findmax{}
  \texttt{var index = 0;}
  \texttt{while (index < 6) {}
    \texttt{if (max < array[index]) {}
    \texttt{max = array[index];}
    \texttt{}}
    \texttt{index = index+1;}
  \texttt{}}
- \texttt{-> P();}

\textbf{Note:} both global variable (e.g., \texttt{array}, \texttt{max}) and local variables (e.g., \texttt{index}) are allowed to be used and updated in the sequential program. While process arguments and channel input variables can only be used without being updated. The scope of the local variable is only inside the sequential program and starts from the place of declaration. PAT does not support process level local variables so that there is no need
to maintain a changing heap/stack to gain the efficiency. Alternatively, process level local variables can be modeled using global variables easily.

**Note:** Data operation supports local variable array, assume the following process is valid in PAT:

```
event {var array[5]:} -> Process
```

where local variable array's (here is the `array`) elements are initialized to zero.

**Note:** the semi-colon in the last expression in the statement block is optional for the simplicity of modeling.

**Note:** PAT supports two assignment syntax sugars `++`, `--`. `x++` is same as `x=x+1`. `y--` is same as `y = y-1`. `y=x++` is same as `x = x +1; y = x;`. There is no support for other shorthands, such as `++b`, `--b`, `b *= 2`, `b += a`, etc. Where needed, their effect can be reproduced by using the non-shortened equivalents. The following example shows the usage of `++` and `--`, where the final values of `x` and `y` are both 3.

```
var x = 2;

var y;
P() = add{x++;} -> minus{x--;} -> event{y=x++;} -> Skip;
```

**Invisible Events**

User can explicitly write invisible event (i.e., tau event) by using keyword tau, e.g., tau -> Stop. In the tau event, statement block can still be attached. With the support of tau event, you can avoid using hiding operator to explicitly hide some visible events by name them tau events. The second way to write an invisible event is to skip the event name of a statement block, e.g., `{x=x+1;} -> Stop, which is equivalent to tau{x=x+1;} -> Stop.

**Channel output/input**
Processes may communicate through channels. Channel input/output is written in a similar way as simple event prefixing. Let $P$ be a process expression.

\[
\begin{align*}
  c!a.b & \rightarrow P & \text{-- channel output} \\
  c?x.y & \rightarrow P & \text{-- channel input} \\
  c?1 & \rightarrow P & \text{-- channel input with expected value} \\
  c?[x+y+9>10]x.y & \rightarrow P & \text{-- channel input with guard expression}
\end{align*}
\]

Where $c$ is a channel, $a$ and $b$ are expressions which evaluates to values (at runtime), while $x$ and $y$ are (local) variables which take the input values. A channel must be declared before it is used. For channel output, the compound value evaluated from both $a$ and $b$ is stored in the channel buffer (FIFO queue) if the buffer is not full yet. If the buffer is full, the process waits. For channel input $c?x.y$, the top element on the buffer is retrieved and then assigned to local free variables $x$ and $y$ if the buffer is not empty. Otherwise, it waits. For channel input $c?1$, the top element on the buffer is retrieved if the buffer is not empty and the top element value is 1. Otherwise, it waits. For channel input $c?[x+y+9>10]x.y$, the top element on the buffer is retrieved and then assigned to local free variable $x$ and $y$ if the buffer is not empty, and the guard condition $x+y+9>10$ is true. Otherwise, it waits. Note that in channel input, you can write expressions after $c?$, but the expressions can not contain any global variables. You can put arbitrary number of variables/expressions in the channel output/input by separating them using ".". The following example demonstrates how channel communication is used.

```
channel c 1;

Sender(i) = c!i \rightarrow Sender(i);
Receiver() = c?x \rightarrow a.x \rightarrow Receiver();

System() = Sender(5) || Receiver();
```
PAT supports synchronous channel communication, i.e., the channel output and its matching channel input are engaged together. The synchronous channel event will be displayed as $c.exp$ for channel output $c\langle exp \rangle$ and channel input $c?x$. To do synchronous channel communication, simply set the size of the channel to be 0. All the channel communications for non-zero channel are asynchronous.

Channel communication can also attach program for both synchronous and asynchronous channel.

```plaintext
channel c 0; //or channel c 1;
var x = 1;

P = c!x{ x = 2 } -> P;
Q = c?y{ x = y; } -> Q;
A = P ||| Q;
```

For the example above, the execution sequence is $c!x \rightarrow (x = 2) \rightarrow (x = y)$.

**Note:** Channel input variables' scope is after the channel input event and within residing process. They can be referenced in the scope, but not updated.

**Note:** Parameter variables can be used in the expressions of channel input, e.g., $P(i) = c?i.i+1 \rightarrow Skip$. In this case, once the value of parameter $i$ is known, $i$ and $i+1$ will be instantiated to constants, so that only matching channel output data will be received. Furthermore, local free variable in channel input can also be used in follow-up channel input's expressions. e.g., $P() = c!5 \rightarrow c?x \rightarrow c!6 \rightarrow c?x+1 \rightarrow Skip$; In this case, $x$ is 5 and $P$ can execute to Skip. Global variables CAN NOT be used in channel input expressions!

PAT also support channel arrays, which is a syntax suger to make the modeling easier if the channels are parameterized. The following syntax demonstrates how to use the channel array.
channel c[3] 1;

Sender(i) = c[i]!i -> Sender(i);
Receiver() = c[0]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[1]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[2]?x -> a.x -> Receiver();

System() = (||| i:{0..2}@Sender(i) ) ||| Receiver();

Note: Two or N dimensional channel array can be simulated by using 1 dimensional channel array. Hence, we don't provide syntax support for that. For example channel c[3][5] 1 is same as channel c[15] 1, and c[2][3]!4 -> Skip is same as c[2*N+3]!4 -> Skip, where N is the first dimension.

Channel operations

PAT provides 5 channel operations to query the buffer information of asynchronous channels: cfull, cempty, ccount, csize, cpeek. The usage of these operations follows the normal static method call, i.e., call(channel_operation, channel_name). The meaning of each operation is explained below.

- **cfull**: a boolean function to test whether the an asynchronous channel is full or not. e.g. call(cfull, c).
- **cempty**: a boolean function to test whether the an asynchronous channel is empty or not. e.g. call(cempty, c).
- **ccount**: an integer function to return the number of elements in the buffer of an asynchronous channel. e.g. call(ccount, c).
- **csize**: an integer function to return the buffer size of an asynchronous channel. e.g. call(csize, c).
- **cpeek**: return the first element of an asynchronous channel. e.g. call(cpeek, c).
Note: Parsing error message will be popped up if these operations are applied to a synchronous channel.

Note: Run time exception will be thrown if trying to cpeek an empty buffer.

**Sequential composition**

A sequential composition is written as,

\[ P; Q \]

where \( P \) and \( Q \) are processes. In this process, \( P \) starts first and \( Q \) starts only when \( P \) has finished.

**General/External/Internal choice**

In PAT (as in CSP), we distinguish among general choice, external choice and internal choice. General choice is resolved by any event. A general choice is written as follows,

\[ P \parallel Q \]

The choice operator \( \parallel \) states that either \( P \) or \( Q \) may execute. If \( P \) performs an event first, then \( P \) takes control. Otherwise, \( Q \) takes control. Notice that the semantic is a bit different from the external choice below.

External choice is resolved by the environment, e.g., the observation of a visible event (i.e., not tau event). Notice that if the first event of both \( P \) and \( Q \) is visible, then \( P \parallel Q \) and \( P[^*]Q \) are equivalent. An external choice is written as follows,

\[ P[^*] Q \]
The choice operator \([\ast]\) states that either \(P\) or \(Q\) may execute. If \(P\) performs a visible event first, then \(P\) takes control. If \(Q\) performs a visible event first, then \(Q\) takes control. Otherwise, the choice remains.

Internal choice introduces non-determinism explicitly. The following models an internal choice,

\[ P <> Q \]

where either \(P\) or \(Q\) may execute. The choice is made internally and non-deterministically. Non-determinism is largely undesirable at design or implementation stage, whereas it is useful at modeling stage for hiding irrelevant information. For instance, it can be used to model the behaviors of a black-box procedure, where the exact details of the implementation are not available.

The generalized form of general/external/internal choice is written as,

\[
[\ast] \ x: \{1..n\}@ P(x) \quad \text{-- which is equivalent to } \ P(1) \ [\ast] \ldots \ [\ast] \ P(n)
\]

\[
[\ast] \ x: \{1..n\}@ P(x) \quad \text{-- which is equivalent to } \ P(1) \ [\ast] \ldots \ [\ast] \ P(n)
\]

\[
<> \ x: \{1..n\}@ P(x) \quad \text{-- which is equivalent to } \ P(1) \ <> \ldots \ <> \ P(n)
\]

**Conditional Choice**

A choice may depend on a Boolean expression which in turn depends on the valuations of the variables. In PAT, we support the classic if-then-else as follows,

\[
\text{if (cond) } \{ P \} \text{ else } \{ Q \}
\]

\[
\text{if (cond1) } \{ P \} \text{ else if (cond2) } \{ Q \} \text{ else } \{ M \}
\]
where \( \text{cond} \) is a Boolean formula. If \( \text{cond} \) evaluates to true, the \( P \) executes, otherwise \( Q \) executes. Notice that the else-part is optional. The process \( \text{if} (\text{false}) \{P\} \) behaves exactly as process \( \text{Skip} \).

PAT also provides atomic conditional choices, which perform the condition checking and first operation of \( P/Q \) together. This allows users to simulate CAS operator in distributed systems. The syntax is following:

\[
\text{ifa} \ (\text{cond}) \ \{ \ P \ \} \ else \ \{ \ Q \ \}
\]

PAT provides blocking conditional choices, which are similar to \text{guarded process}. The only difference is that the checking of blocking condition and the execution of \( P \) are separated in \( \text{ifb} \). The syntax is following. Note that there is no \text{else} in \text{ifb}.

\[
\text{ifb} \ (\text{cond}) \ \{ \ P \ \}
\]

\textbf{Note:} Side effect (i.e., update of the variable value) is not allowed in if condition (similarly for \text{guarded process} and case process below). This restriction is mainly for using C# code in if condition. For example, a Boolean method \text{isEmpty} of a user defined list variable returns a false and also adds an element to the list. We add this restriction is purely for performance reason. If you really want to achieve this effect, you can put the method call in an event prefix, and store the returned value in a global Boolean variable. The global variable can then be used in the if condition then.

\textbf{Case}

A generalized form of conditional choice is written as,

\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{case} \ \\
  \text{  case1: P1} \\
  \text{  case2: P2} \\
  \text{  default: P} \\
  \end{itemize}
where \texttt{case} is a key word and \texttt{cond1, cond2} are Boolean expressions. If \texttt{cond1} is true, then \texttt{P1} executes. Otherwise, if \texttt{cond2} is true, then \texttt{P2}. And if \texttt{cond1} and \texttt{cond2} are both false, then \texttt{P} executes by default. The condition is evaluated one by one until a true one is found. In case no condition is true, the \texttt{default} process will be executed.

**Guarded process**

A guarded process only executes when its guard condition is satisfied. In PAT, a guard process is written as follows,

\[
\begin{align*}
\texttt{[cond] P}
\end{align*}
\]

where \texttt{cond} is a Boolean formula and \texttt{P} is a process. If \texttt{cond} is true, \texttt{P} executes. Notice that different from conditional choice, if \texttt{cond} is false, the whole process will wait until \texttt{cond} is true and then \texttt{P} executes.

**Interleaving**

Two processes which run concurrently without barrier synchronization written as,

\[
\begin{align*}
P \mid\mid Q
\end{align*}
\]

where \texttt{|||} denotes interleaving. Both \texttt{P} and \texttt{Q} may perform their local actions without synchronizing with each other \texttt{except termination events}. If one process generates termination event, this termination event cannot executed directly unless all processes are emitting a termination event. For example the following process will deadlock due to this constraint.

\[
\begin{align*}
\texttt{Skip \mid\mid \texttt{Stop}}
\end{align*}
\]

Notice that \texttt{P} and \texttt{Q} can still communicate via shared variables or channels. The generalized form of interleaving is written as,

\[
\begin{align*}
\mid\mid x\{0..n\} @ P(x)
\end{align*}
\]
PAT supports grouped interleaving processes or even infinite number of processes running interleavingly, similarly, for parallel composition and internal/external choices. All the syntaxes below are valid.

```
||| {50} @ P(); // 50 P() running interleavingly.
```

```
|| {.} @ Q(); // infinite number of Q() running in parallel.
```

```
[] x:{0..2} @ ( (||| {x} @ P) ||| (||| {x} @ Q())); // this is equivalent to (Skip|||Skip)|||(||| {1} @P()) ||| (||| {1} @Q()) ||| (||| {2} @P()) ||| (||| {2} @Q()));
```

**Note:** `||| {0} @ P()` is same as `Skip`.

**Note:** Looping variables can also be used in the process inside as process parameter. For example, the following definitions are all valid in PAT.

```
||| x:{0..3} @ (a.x -> Skip)
```
```
|| x:{0..3} @ (a.x -> Skip) ||| {a.x})
```
```
[] x:{0..3} @ (ch!x -> Skip)
```

**Note:** in grouped processes, e.g., `[] x:{0..n}@P` or `||| {0} @ P()`, `n` can be a global constant or process parameter, but not a global variable. We make this restriction for the performance reason. For example, the following definitions are all valid in PAT.

```
#define n 10;
||| x:{0..n}@P;
P(n) = ||| x:{0..n}@Q;
```

**Parallel composition**

Parallel composition of two processes with barrier synchronization is written as,

```
P || Q
```
where $\parallel$ denotes parallel composition. Different from interleaving, $P$ and $Q$ may perform lock-step synchronization, i.e., $P$ and $Q$ simultaneously perform an event. For instance, if $P$ is $a \rightarrow c \rightarrow Stop$ and $Q$ is $c \rightarrow Stop$, because $c$ is both in the alphabet of $P$ and $Q$, it becomes a synchronization barrier. Therefore, at the beginning, only $a$ can be engaged. After that, $c$ is engaged by $P$ and $Q$ at the exactly same time. In general, all events which are in both $P$ and $Q$'s alphabets must be synchronized. Notice that, which events are synchronization barriers depends on the alphabets of $P$ and $Q$. In order to know what are the enabled actions, we therefore must first calculate the alphabets.

In tools like FDR, the shared alphabet of a parallel composition must be explicitly given. In PAT, however, we have a procedure to automatically calculate alphabets. The alphabet of a process is the set of events that the process takes part in. For instance, given the process defined as follows,

$$VM() = insertcoin \rightarrow coffee \rightarrow VM();$$

The alphabet of $VM()$ is exactly the set of events which constitute the process expression, i.e., $\{insertcoin, coffee\}$. However, calculating the alphabet of a process is not always trivial. It may be complicated by two things. One is process referencing. The other is process parameters. In the above example, the process reference $VM()$ happens to be the same as the process whose alphabet is being calculated. Thus, it is not necessarily to unfold $VM()$ again. Should a different process is referenced, we must unfold that process and get its alphabet. For instance, assume $VM()$ is now defined as follows,

$$VM() = insertcoin \rightarrow Inserted();$$
$$Inserted() = coffee \rightarrow VM();$$

To calculate the alphabet of $VM()$, we must unfold process $Inserted()$ and combine alphabets of $Inserted()$ with $\{insertcoin\}$. Notice that a simple procedure must be used to prevent unfolding the same process again. However, even with such a procedure, it
may still be infeasible to calculate mechanically the alphabet of a process. The complexity is due to process parameters. For instance, given the following process,

\[ P(i) = a.i \rightarrow P(i+1); \]

Naturally, the unfolding is non-terminating. In general, there is no way to solve this problem. Therefore, PAT offers two compromising ways to get the alphabets. One is to use a reasonably simple procedure to calculate a default alphabet of a process. When the default alphabet is not as expected, an advanced user is allowed to define the alphabet of a process manually. We detail the former in the following.

First of all, alphabet of processes are calculated only when it is necessary, which means, only when a parallel composition is evaluated. This saves a lot of computational overhead. Processes in a large number of models only communicate through shared variables. If no parallel composition is present, there is no need to evaluate alphabets. We remark that when there is no shared abstract events, process \( P || Q \) and \( P \parallel Q \) are exactly the same. Therefore, we recommend ||| when appropriate. When a parallel composition is evaluated for the first time, the default alphabet of each sub-process is calculated (if not manually defined). The procedure for calculating the default alphabet works by retrieving all event constituting the process expression and unfolding every newly-met process reference. It throws an exception if a process reference is met twice with different parameters (which probably indicates the unfolding is non-terminating). In such a case, PAT expects the user to specify the alphabet of a process using the following syntax,

\[
\texttt{#alphabet } P \{...\};
\]

where \( P \) is process name and \( {...} \) is the set of events which is considered its alphabet. Notice that the event expressions may contain variables. The rules is that if process \( P(X) \) is defined, you may have alphabet definitions as follows,

\[
\texttt{#alphabet } P \{a.X\};
\]
Once the alphabets of $P$ and $Q$ are identified, we calculate their intersection. If $P$ is ready to perform an event which is not in the intersection, it may simply proceed, so does $Q$. If $P$ is ready to perform an event in the intersection, it has to wait until $Q$ is also ready to perform this event and then proceed together.

**Remarks:** Data operations (i.e. the events attached with programs) are not counted in the calculation of alphabets to avoid data race on updating same global variables. The detailed explanation and examples are available here (Question 3).

**Remarks:** If process $P$ is expected to have different alphabets in different places in the specification, a dummy may be defined to associate different alphabet with the same process.

\[
Q1() = P(); \\
\text{#alphabet Q1 \{x\};} \\
Q2() = P(); \\
\text{#alphabet Q2 \{y\};}
\]

The philosophy is that we see both the process expression and alphabet as signatures of a process (i.e., processes with the same process expression but different alphabets are essentially different processes!).

The generalized parallel composition is written as,

\[
// x:\{0..n\} @ P(x);
\]

The alphabet of each $P(x)$ is calculated. An event can be engaged if and only if all processes whose alphabet contains this event are ready to perform it.

**Remarks:** The syntax sugar indexed event list can be used in the definition of alphabets. For example:
\#define N 2; 
\begin{verbatim}
P = e.0.0 -> e.0.1 -> e.0.2 -> turns -> e.1.0 -> e.1.1 -> e.1.2 -> e.2.0 -> e.2.1 -> e.2.2 -> P;
\end{verbatim}

\#alphabet P { x:0..N; y:0..N } @ e.x.y;

The above definitions define the alphabet of process \( P \) as the set of all events except event \textit{turns} appearing in its process definition.

**Interrupt**

Process \( P \) interrupt \( Q \) behaves as specified by \( P \) until the first visible event of \( Q \) is engaged which could be at any execution point of process \( P \), and then the control transfers to \( Q \). An execution trace of process \( P \) interrupt \( Q \) is just a trace of \( P \) up to an arbitrary point when the interrupt occurs, followed by any trace of \( Q \).

The following is an example,

- \( Err() = \text{exception} \rightarrow Err() \);
- \( Routine() = \text{routine} \rightarrow Routine() \);
- \( \text{ExceptionHandling()} = \text{Routine()} \) interrupt \text{exception} \rightarrow \text{ExceptionHandling()} ;
- \( \text{System} = Err() \parallel \text{ExceptionHandling()} ; \)

where \( Routine() \) is a process which performs normal daily task, \( Err() \) is a process modeling errors happened in the environment and \( \text{ExceptionHandling()} \) is a process which performs necessary actions for error handling. For System, whenever an exception occurs (modeled as event exception), process \( \text{ExceptionHandling()} \) takes the control over.

**Note:** For process \( P \) interrupt \( Q \), the interrupting event from \( Q \) must be a visible event (not tau). If a tau event is detected, a runtime exception will be thrown.

**Hiding**
Process $P \setminus A$ where $A$ is a set of events turns events in $A$ to invisible ones. Hiding is applied when only certain events are interested. Hiding may be used to introduce non-determinism. The following is an example,

$$\text{dashPhil()} = \text{Phil()} \mid \{\text{getfork.1, getfork.2, putfork.1, putfork.2}\};$$

$$\text{Phil()} = \text{getfork.1} \rightarrow \text{getfork.2} \rightarrow \text{eat} \rightarrow \text{putfork.1} \rightarrow \text{putfork.2} \rightarrow \text{Phil>();}$$

where process $\text{Phil()}$ specifies a philosopher who gets two forks in order and then eats and then puts down both forks in the same order. Process $\text{dashPhil()}$, however, hides the events of getting up or putting down the forks. We can imagine that the philosopher is so quick that no one can tell how he gets the forks. People can only tell when he is eating. By hiding those events, the rest of the system can not observe those hidden events. We remark that hiding is often used to prevent unwanted synchronization in parallel composition.

**Note:** The syntax sugar indexed event list can be used for defining a set of events with the same prefix. For example, the definition for process $\text{dashPhil()}$ can be rewritten as the following.

$$\text{dashPhil()} = \text{Phil()} \mid \{x:1..2 \rightarrow \text{getfork.x}, y:1..2 \rightarrow \text{putfork.y}\};$$

**Atomic Process**

The keyword $\text{atomic}$ allows user to associate higher priority with a process, i.e., if the process has an enabled event, the event will execute before any events from non-atomic processes. The syntax is $\text{atomic\{P\}}$, where P is any process definition.

If a sequence of statements is enclosed in parentheses and prefixed with the keyword $\text{atomic}$, this indicates that the sequence is to be executed as one super-step, not to be interleaved by other processes. In the interleaving of process executions, no other process can execute statements from the moment that an event in an atomic process is $\text{enabled}$ until the last enabled one has completed. The sequence can contain arbitrary process statements, and may be non-deterministic. Once an atomic process is
enabled, it immediately gains a higher priority. It continues to execute until it is disabled. Once all atomic processes are enabled, other non-atomic processes are then allowed to execute. If multiple atomic processes are enabled, then they interleave each other. In the following example, process $P$ and $Q$ will interleave each other, whereas $W$ will execute only after event $c$ and $f$ have occurred.

```plaintext
channel ch 0;
P = atomic { a -> ch!0 -> b -> c -> Skip};
Q = atomic { d -> ch?0 -> e -> f -> Skip};
W = g -> Skip
 Sys = P ||| Q ||| W;
```

Note: Since PAT 3.4.2, the semantics of atomic process changed a little bit. In the example below, before PAT 3.4.2, event $a$ and $d$ are enabled at the same time when process $Sys$ starts. In PAT 3.4.2, only $d$ is enabled because enabled atomic process has higher priority than enabled events. This change allows us to use atomic consistently in CSP module and RTS module.

```plaintext
P = a -> atomic { b -> c -> Skip};
Q = atomic { d -> e -> f -> Skip};
Sys = P ||| Q;
```

Note: atomic sequences can be used for state reduction for model checking, especially if the process is composed with other processes in parallel. The number of states may be reduced exponentially. In a way, by using atomic, we may partial order reduction manually (without computational overhead). The general rule is that local events which are invisible to the verifying property and independent to other events shall be associated with higher priority.

Note: an atomic process inside other atomic process has no effect at all.

Recursion
Recursion is achieved through process referencing flexibly. The following process contains mutual recursion.

\[
P(i) = a.i \rightarrow Q(i); \\
Q(i) = b.i \rightarrow P(i);
\]

System() = \( P(1) \parallel Q(2) \);

Note: when invoking a process, the parameters can be any valid expression, e.g. \( P(x), P(x+1), P(\text{new List()}) \). Only when the process parameter is used as user defined types, it is user's responsibility to make sure that the correct variable type is passed in since most of PAT modules don't have explicit types. See the example below.

```plaintext
# import "PAT.Lib.Set";
var <Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = initialize{i.Add(1);} -> ([i.GetSize() > 0] Skip);
```

Warning: when user defined data structure is used as parameter, if the parameter in the process updates the data structure, the verification/simulation maybe wrong and unexpected. For instance the following example, \( i \) is an object used in both branch of the choice operator, so the effect of executing add1 will stay even the actual branch selected is add2. In the simulator, you will find that after executing event add2, the value of set1 can become \([1,2]\). The root of this cause is the pointer problem.

```plaintext
# import "PAT.Lib.Set";
var <Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = add1{i.Add(1);} -> Skip [] add2{i.Add(2);} -> Skip;
```

It is straightforward to use process reference to realize common iterative procedures. For instance, the following process behaves exactly as \( \text{while (cond) \{} P(); \}\) \;

```plaintext
Q() = if (cond) \{ P(); Q(); \};
```
**Assert**

Assertion process allows user to add an assertion in the program. PAT simulator and verifiers will check the assertion at run time. If the assertion is failed, a PAT runtime exception will be thrown to the user and the evaluation is stopped. The syntax of Assertion is as follows,

```plaintext
var x = 1;
P = assert(x > 0); e{x = x-1;} -> P;
```

**3.1.1.3 Assertions**

An assertion is a query about the system behaviors. In PAT, we support a number of different assertions (still increasing). We support the full set of Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) as well as classic refinement/equivalence relationships.

**Deadlock-freeness**

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks whether $P()$ is deadlock-free or not.

```
#assert P() deadlockfree;
```

Where both *assert* and *deadlockfree* are reserved keywords. PAT's model checker performs Depth-First-Search or Breath-First-Search algorithm to repeatedly explore unvisited states until a deadlock state (i.e., a state with no further move except for *successfully terminated state*) is found or all states have been visited.

**Divergence-free**

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks whether $P()$ is divergence-free or not.
#assert P() divergencefree;

Where both *assert* and *divergencefree* are reserved keywords. Given a process, it may perform internal transitions forever without engaging any useful events, e.g., \( P = (a \rightarrow P) \upharpoonright \{a\} \); In this case, \( P \) is said to be divergent. Divergent system is usually undesirable.

**Deterministic**

Given \( P() \) as a process, the following assertion asks whether \( P() \) is deterministic or not.

#assert P() deterministic;

Where both *assert* and *deterministic* are reserved keywords. Given a process, if it is deterministic, then for any state, there is no two out-going transitions leading to different states but with same events. E.g, the following process is not *deterministic*.

\[
P = a \rightarrow \text{Stop} \upharpoonright [a \rightarrow \text{Skip}];
\]

**Nonterminating**

Given \( P() \) as a process, the following assertion asks whether \( P() \) is nonterminating or not.

#assert P() nonterminating;

Where both *assert* and *nonterminating* are reserved keywords. PAT's model checker performs Depth-First-Search or Breath-First-Search algorithm to repeatedly explore unvisited states until a terminating state (i.e., a state with no further move, including successfully terminated state) is found or all states have been visited. The following process is deadlockfree, but not *nonterminating*.

\[
P = a \rightarrow \text{Skip};
\]
Reachability

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks whether $P()$ can reach a state at which some given condition is satisfied.

\[ \text{#assert } P() \text{ reaches } \text{cond}; \]

Where both \textit{assert} and \textit{reaches} are reserved keywords and \textit{cond} is a proposition defined as a global definition. For instance, the following code segment asks whether $P()$ can reach a state at which $x$ is negative.

- \textit{var} $x = 0$;
- $P() = \text{add}\{x = x + 1;\} \rightarrow P() [] \text{ minus}\{x = x -1;\} \rightarrow P();$
- \textit{#define} goal $x < 0$;
- \textit{#assert} $P()$ \text{ reaches } goal;

In order to tell whether the assertion is true or not, PAT's model checker performs a depth-first-search algorithm to repeatedly explore unvisited states until a state at which the condition is true is found or all states have been visited.

To further query about variable values, PAT allows user to find the minimum value or maximum value of some expressions in all reachable traces. The following coin changing example show how to minimize the number of coins during the reachability search.

- \textit{var} $x = 0$;
- \textit{var} \text{weight} = 0;
- $P() = \text{if}(x \leq 14)$
  - \{
    - \text{coin1}\{x = x + 1; \text{weight} = \text{weight} + 1;\} \rightarrow P() [] \text{ coin2}\{x = x + 2; \text{weight} = \text{weight} + 1;\} \rightarrow P()$
  - \}
- \textit{#define} goal $x == 14;$
• \#assert \( P() \) reaches goal with min(weight);

Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)

In PAT, we support the full set of LTL syntax. Given a process \( P() \), the following assertion asks whether \( P() \) satisfies the LTL formula.

\[ \#assert P() \models F; \]

where \( F \) is an LTL formula whose syntax is defined as the following rules,

\[ F = e \mid \text{prop} \mid \[ F \mid <> F \mid X F \mid F_1 U F_2 \mid F_1 R F_2 \]

where \( e \) is an event, \text{prop} is a pre-defined proposition, \[ reads as "always" (also can be written as 'G' in PAT), <> reads as "eventually" (also can be written as 'F' in PAT), X reads as "next", U reads as "until" and R reads as "Release" (also can be written as 'V' in PAT).

An LTL formula can be evaluated over an infinite sequence of truth evaluations and a position on that path. The semantics for the modal operators is given as follows.
Informally, the assertion is true if and only if every execution of the system satisfies the formula. Given an LTL formula, PAT’s model checker firstly invokes a procedure to generate a Buchi automaton which is equivalent to the negation of the formula. Then, the Buchi automaton is composed of the internal model of $P()$ so as to determine whether the formula is true for all system executions or not. Refer to [SUNLDP09] for details. For instance, the following assertion asks whether the philosopher can always eventually eat or not (i.e., non-starvation).

```plaintext
#assert Phil() |= []<>eat;
```

**Note:** event $e$ can be component event like `eat.0`. $e$ can also be channel event like "c!3.8" or "c?19". Double quotation marks are needed when writing channel events due to the special characters ! and ?. Synchronous channel events can be written as $c.3.8$. 

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textual</th>
<th>Symbolic</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Diagram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unary operators:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X \varphi$</td>
<td>$\bigcirc \varphi$</td>
<td>Ex: $\varphi$ has to hold at the next state.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G \varphi$</td>
<td>$\Box \varphi$</td>
<td>Global: $\varphi$ has to hold on the entire subsequent path.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F \varphi$</td>
<td>$\Diamond \varphi$</td>
<td>Finally: $\varphi$ eventually has to hold (somewhere on the subsequent path).</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Binary operators:** | | | |
| $\psi U \varphi$ | $\psi U \varphi$ | Until: $\varphi$ holds at the current or a future position, and $\psi$ has to hold until that position. At that position $\psi$ does not have to hold necessarily any more. | ![Diagram](image) |
| $\psi R \varphi$ | $\psi R \varphi$ | Release: $\varphi$ is true until the first position in which $\psi$ is true, or forever if such a position does not exist. | ![Diagram](image) |
```c
#assert Phil() |= []<> eat.0 && "c!3";
```

**Note:** In LTL, if there is synchronous channel, its input (?) or output (!) event will be renamed to synchronous event (.) after parsing. 

\[ (c1!2 -> <> c2?3) \] will be changed to \[ (c1.2 -> <> c2.3) \]

**Note:** when two or more X are used together, leave a space between them. XX will be mis-recognized as a proposition.

**Refinement/ Equivalence**

In PAT, we support FDR's approach for checking whether an implementation satisfies a specification or not. That is, by the notion of refinement or equivalence. Different from LTL assertions, an assertion for refinement compares the whole behaviors of a given process with another process, e.g., whether there is a subset relationship. There are in total 3 different notions of refinement relationship, which can be written in the following syntax.

- `#assert P() refines Q()` - whether P() refines Q() in the trace semantics;
- `#assert P() refines <F> Q()` - whether P() refines Q() in the stable failures semantics;
- `#assert P() refines <FD> Q()` - whether P() refines Q() in the failures divergence semantics;

PAT's model checker invokes a reachability analysis procedure to repeatedly explore the (synchronization) product of P() and Q() to search for a state at which the refinement relationship does not hold.

[TOP]

**3.1.1.4 Expressions**
Expressions are used in models together with processes. This section explains the supported expression types and their usage.

**Expression Types**

1. **Boolean Logical Expression**: Two boolean logic operators OR and AND are supported in PAT using symbol '||' and '&&' respectively. The conditional-AND/OR operator performs a logical-AND/OR of its bool operands, but only evaluates its second operand if necessary.

2. **Relational Operators** contains the equal and not equal relation as well as other relations. They are expressed using the following symbols in PAT particularly:
   - Equal ’==’
   - Not Equal ’!=’
   - Other Relational operators: ‘<’, ‘>’, ‘<=’, ‘>=’

3. **Arithmetic Operators** contains the additive and multiplicative expressions which is represented in the model using ‘+’/’-’ and ‘*’, ‘/’, ‘%’ (modulo operator).

4. **Unary Operators** contains ‘+’, ‘-’ for positive or negative values, ‘!’ for negation of boolean expressions.

5. **Increment ‘++’ or Decrement** operators ‘--’ increase or decrease the variable by 1 respectively.

6. **If Expression**: The conditions in If can be expressions and their combinations we have introduced above. Then it has the similar meaning and usage as common programming languages. Note that this if expression can only contain expressions in the than or else branches, but the if process in the model can only contains processes in the than or else branches.

7. **While Expression**: Similar as if expressions, while expression takes expressions of type 1-4 or their combinations as condition and behaves just like it has defined in common programming languages.

Note: Expressions of type 1-5 can be composed to be complex expressions. And this composed expression will be parsed in the priority of 5 to 1 (i.e. the precedence
order). For example, if a, b, c are defined as variables, the following complex expression
is a valid expression.

\[
\text{if } ((a \% 2 == 0) || ((a++) <= b) \&\& (b == c))
\]

**Indexed Boolean Expression**

The indexed expression is a syntax sugar for grouping a list of OR or AND
expressions together over a range of variables. The syntax is following:

A typical example is as follows:

```plaintext
var x[3];

P = if(&& i:{0..2}@((x[i] == 0)){bingo -> Skip};
```

**Expression Macro Definition**

Users can define expression macro using define keywork and use the macro in the
model or assertions.

```plaintext
var x;

#define goal x < 0;
```

[TOP]

**3.1.1.5 Grammar Rules**

```
specification
    : (specBody)*
    ;

specBody
    : library
```
library
  : '#' 'import' STRING ';' //import the library by full dll path or DLL name under the Lib folder
  | '#' 'include' STRING '//' //include the other models by full path or file name if under the same folder of current model
channel
  : 'channel' ID ('[' additiveExpression ']' )? additiveExpression '('; 
assertion
  : '#' 'assert' definitionRef
    ( ( '=' (' (' '|' ')' ) | '[' | '<=' | '<>' | ID | STRING | '?' | '&&' | '||' | 'xor' | '-' | '<-' | '<' | '-' | '/' | '/' | '.' | INT )+ ) 'deadlockfree'
    | 'nonterminating'
    | 'divergencefree'
    | 'deterministic'
    | 'reaches' ID withClause?
    | 'refines' definitionRef
    | 'refines' '<F>' definitionRef
    | 'refines' '<FD>' definitionRef
    ) 'refines' 'refines' 'refines' 'refines'
assertion
  ;
withClause
  : 'with' ('min' | 'max') (' expression ') 
  ;
definitionRef
  : ID ('(' argumentExpression(',' argumentExpression)* )? ')')?
  ;

alphabet
define
    : '# define ID "? INT ;'
    | '# define ID true ;'
    | '# define ID false ;'
    | 'enum { a=ID, b=ID* } ;'
    | '# define ID dparameter? dstatement ;'
    ;

dparameter
    : '(' ID (', ID )* ')' 
    ;
dstatement
    : block
    | expression 
    ;

block
    : '{ (s=statement)* (e=expression)? }' //At least a statement or expression has to be specified, i.e. s and e cannot be both null.
    ;

statement
    : block
    | localVariableDeclaration
    | ifExpression
    | whileExpression
    | expression 
    | ';' 
    ;

//local variable that can be used in the block
localVariableDeclaration
    : 'var' ID ('=' expression)? ';' 
    | 'var' ID '=' recordExpression ';'
    | 'var' ID ('[' expression ']')+ ('=' recordExpression)? ';' 
    ;

expression
    : conditionalOrExpression ('=' expression)? 
    ;
conditionalOrExpression
  : '||' indexedExpression
      | conditionalAndExpression ( '||' conditionalAndExpression )*
      ;

conditionalAndExpression
  : '&&' indexedExpression
      | conditionalXorExpression ( '&&' conditionalXorExpression )*
      ;

conditionalXorExpression
  : 'xor' indexedExpression
      | bitwiseLogicExpression ( 'xor' bitwiseLogicExpression )*
      ;

indexedExpression
  : (paralDef (';' paralDef ))* '@' expression
      ;

bitwiseLogicExpression
  : equalityExpression ( ( '&' | '|' | '^' ) equalityExpression )*
      ;

equalityExpression
  : relationalExpression ( ('=='|'!=') relationalExpression )*
      ;

relationalExpression
  : additiveExpression ( ('<' | '>' | '<=' | '>=' ) additiveExpression )*
      ;

additiveExpression
  : multiplicativeExpression ( ('+' | '-') multiplicativeExpression )*
      ;

multiplicativeExpression
  : unaryExpression ( ('*' | '/' | '%' ) unaryExpression )*
      ;

unaryExpression
  : '+' unaryExpression
      | '-' unaryExpression
      | '!' unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus
      | unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus '++' //Note: this is a syntax suger for unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus = unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus +1
      | unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus '--' //Note: this is a syntax suger for unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus = unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus - 1
arrayExpression
  : ID ('[' conditionalOrExpression ']')+ ;

unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus
  : INT
    | 'true'
    | 'false'
    | 'call' '(' ID (',' argumentExpression)*) '
    | 'new' ID '(' (argumentExpression (',' argumentExpression)*)? ')' 
var=ID methods_fields_call
a1=arrayExpression methods_fields_call
arrayExpression
  | '(' conditionalOrExpression ')
  | ID ;

methods_fields_call
  : '.' method=ID '(' (argumentExpression (',' argumentExpression)*)? ')' 
    | '$' method=ID ;

definition
  : ('var'|'hvar') ('< userType=ID '>')? name=ID variableRange? ('=' (expression|'*') )? ;
    //user defined datatype is supported using <type>
  | ('var'|'hvar') ID variableRange? '=' recordExpression ;
    | ('var'|'hvar') ID ('[' expression ']')+ variableRange? ('=' (recordExpression|'*') )? ;
    //multi-dimensional array is supported
    ;

variableRange
  : ':' '{ (additiveExpression)? '..' (additiveExpression)? '}'
    ;

argumentExpression
  : conditionalOrExpression
    | recordExpression
    ;

//if definition
ifExpression
  : 'if' '(' expression ')' statement ('else' statement)? ;
whileExpression
  : 'while' '(' expression ')' statement
    ;

recordExpression
  : '[' recordElement (',' recordElement)* ']
    ;

recordElement
  : e1=expression ('e2=expression')? //e2 means the number of e1, by default it's 1
    | e1=expression '..'e2=expression //e1 to e2 gives a range of constants
    ;

//process definitions
definition
  : ID (~(parameter(',' parameter))?)? '=' interleaveExpr ';
    ;

parameter
  : ID variableRange?
    ;

interleaveExpr
  : parallelExpr ('|||' parallelExpr)*
    | '|||' (paralDef (',' paralDef)*) '@' interleaveExpr
    | '|||' paralDef2 '@' interleaveExpr
    ;

parallelExpr
  : generalChoiceExpr ('||' generalChoiceExpr)*
    | '||' (paralDef (',' paralDef)*) '@' interleaveExpr
    ;

paralDef
  : ID ':' '{' additiveExpression (',' additiveExpression)* '}'
    | ID ':' '{' additiveExpression '..' additiveExpression '}'
    ;

paralDef2
  : '{' '..' '}'
    | '{' additiveExpression '}'
    ;

generalChoiceExpr
  : internalChoiceExpr('[]' internalChoiceExpr)*
\[
| ['] (paralDef (';' paralDef *)) ' @' interleaveExpr \\
;
\]
\[
\text{internalChoiceExpr} \equiv \text{externalChoiceExpr} ('<>' \text{externalChoiceExpr})* \\
| '<>' (paralDef (';' paralDef *)) ' @' interleaveExpr \\
;
\]
\[
\text{externalChoiceExpr} \equiv \text{interruptExpr} ('[*]' interruptExpr)* \\
| '['*'] (paralDef (';' paralDef *)) ' @' interleaveExpr \\
;
\]
\[
\text{interruptExpr} \equiv \text{hidingExpr} ('interrupt' hidingExpr)* \\
;
\]
\[
\text{hidingExpr} \equiv \text{sequentialExpr} \\
| \text{sequentialExpr} '\\'\{\' \text{eventList} (',' \text{eventList} )* \}' \\
;
\]
\[
\text{sequentialExpr} \equiv \text{guardExpr} (';' \text{guardExpr})* \\
\]
\[
\text{guardExpr} \equiv \text{channelExpr} \\
| [' conditionalOrExpression '] channelExpr \\
;
\]
\[
\text{channelExpr} \equiv \text{ID} ('[\text{additiveExpression}'])? '\!' \text{expression} ('.' \text{expression})* ' ->' channelExpr \\
| \text{ID} ('[\text{additiveExpression}'])? '\?' [' conditionalOrExpression ']? \text{expression} ('.' \text{expression})* ' ->' channelExpr \\
//here expression is either a single variable or expression that has no global variables. Optional conditionalOrExpression is the guard condition that stop the channel input event if the condition is false. \\
| \text{eventExpr} \\
;
\]
\[
\text{eventExpr} \equiv \text{eventM} (\text{block})? ' ->' channelExpr \\
| \text{block} ' ->' channelExpr //un-labeled program, which is same as: tau block ' ->' eventExpr \\
| '('\text{eventM} ('.' \text{eventM})* ') ' ->' channelExpr \\
| \text{caseExpr} \\
;
\]
\[
\text{caseExpr}: 'case'
\]
'{
    caseCondition+
    ('default' ':' interleaveExpr)?
  }
  ifExpr
 |
caseCondition
  : (conditionalOrExpression ':' interleaveExpr)
 |
ifExpr : atomicIfExpr
 |
ifExprs
 |
ifExprs
  : 'if' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}' ('else' ifBlock )?
 |
'ifa' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}' ('else' ifBlock )?
 |
'ifb' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}'
 |
ifBlock
  : ifExprs
 |
  | '{' interleaveExpr '}'
 |
atomicExpr
  : atom
 |
  | 'atomic' '{' interleaveExpr '}'
 |
atom
  : ID ('( (expression (', expression )*)? )')?
 |
'Skip' ('( ')')?
 |
'Stop' ('( ')')?
 |
'assert' ('( expression )'
 |
'( ' interleaveExpr ' ')
 |
eventM
  : eventName
 |
  | 'tau' //invisible tau event
 |
eventList
  : eventName
 |
  | (paralDef (';' paralDef )*) '@' eventName
 |
3.1.1.6 3.1.1.6 Process Laws

Algebraic laws describe the essential properties of operations or process constructs. This section presents algebraic laws of CSP# process constructs.

**General choice**

- L1 <[ ]-idem> \( P [] P = P \);
- L2 <[ ]-sym> \( P [] Q = Q [] P \)
- L3 <[ ]-assoc> \( P [] (Q [] R) = (P [] Q) [] R \)
- L4 <[ ]-unit> \( \text{Stop} [] P = P \)

**Internal choice**

- L1 <[ ]>-sym> \( P <> Q = Q <> P \)
- L2 <[ ]>-assoc> \( P <> (Q <> R) = (P <> Q) <> R \)
Sequential composition

- **L1 <; -dist-l>** \((P <> Q); R = (P; R) <> (Q; R)\)
- **L2 <; -assoc>** \(P; (Q; R) = (P; Q); R\)
- **L3 <; -unit-l>** \(\text{Skip}; P = P\)
- **L4 <; -unit-r>** \(P; \text{Skip} = P\)

Parallel composition

- **L1 <|| -1>** \(a -> P || a -> Q = a -> (P||Q), \text{given that } a \in (\alpha P \cap \alpha Q)\)
- **L2 <|| -2>** \(a -> P || b -> Q = \text{Stop}, \text{given that } a, b \in (\alpha P \cap \alpha Q) \text{ and } a \neq b\)
- **L3 <|| -3>** \(a -> P || b -> Q = b -> (a -> P || Q), \text{given that } a \in (\alpha P \cap \alpha Q) \text{ and } b \notin (\alpha P \cup \alpha Q)\)
- **L4 <|| -4>** \(a -> P || b -> Q = a -> (P || b -> Q) || b -> (a -> P || Q), \text{given that } a, b \notin (\alpha P \cup \alpha Q)\)
- **L5 <|| -sym>** \(P || Q = Q || P\)
- **L6 <|| -assoc>** \(P || Q || R = P || (Q || R)\)
- **L7 <|| -termination-1>** \(\text{Skip} || \text{Skip} = \text{Skip}\)
- **L8 <|| -termination-2>** \(\text{Skip} || \text{Stop} = \text{Stop}\)

Interleaving

- **L1 <||| -sym>** \(P ||| Q = Q ||| P\)
- **L2 <||| -assoc>** \((P|||Q ||| R = P ||| (Q ||| R)\)
- **L3 <||| -unit>** \(\text{Skip} ||| P = P\)

Hiding

- **L1 <hide-dist>** \((P <> Q)\setminus X = (P\setminus X) <> (Q\setminus X)\)
- **L2 <hide-sym>** \((P\setminus Y)\setminus X = (P\setminus X)\setminus Y\)
- **L3 <hide-combine>** \((P\setminus Y)\setminus X = P\setminus (X \cup Y)\)
- **L4 <null hiding>** \(P\setminus \emptyset = P\)
3.1.1.7 Verification Options

This section expands the explanation of verification options in Section 2.2.4. According to each type of assertions supported in CSP module, the possible admissible behaviors and the verification engines provided in PAT are listed in the following.

Note: The numbers attached to each option represents the corresponding options under batch mode verification and command line console.

Note: The verification engine for symbolic model checking using BDD is only available if the system can be encoded using BDD.

**Deadlock-Freeness and Nonterminating:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  - Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward Search Strategy (2)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Backward Search Strategy (3)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward-Backward Search Strategy (4)

**Divergence-Freeness and Deterministic:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
o Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)

**Reachability:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  - Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward Search Strategy (2)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Backward Search Strategy (3)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward-Backward Search Strategy (4)

**Refinement:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
  - On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

**Failure-Refinement:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
  - On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

**Failure/Divergence Refinement:**

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - On-the-fly failures/divergence refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
Safety-LTL Properties:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - Strongly connected components based search (0)
  - Symbolic model checking using BDD (1)

Liveness Properties: (for the meaning of admissible behaviors with fairness assumption, please refer to Section 4.1)

- Admissible behaviors:
  - All (0)
  - Event-level weak fair only (1)
  - Event-level strong fair only (2)
  - Process-level weak fair only (3)
  - Process-level strong fair only (4)
  - Global fair only (5)
- Verification engines (same for each admissible behavior above):
  - Strongly connected components based search (0)
  - Symbolic model checking using BDD (1)

3.1.2 CSP Module Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the CSP module's modeling language using a number of classic examples.

- Bridge Crossing Example
- Dining Philosophers Example
3.1.2.1 Bridge Crossing Example

In this tutorial, we model and solve (by reachability analysis) a classic puzzle, known as bridge crossing puzzle using PAT. The following is the puzzle description.

All four people start out on the southern side of the bridge, namely the King, Queen, a young Lady and a Knight. The goal is for everyone to arrive at the castle- the north of the bridge, before the time runs out. The bridge can hold at most two people at a time and they must be carrying the torch when crossing the bridge. The King needs 5 minutes to cross, the Queen 10 minutes, the Lady 2 minutes and the Knight 1 minute. The question is given a specific amount of time, whether all people can cross the bridge in time.

The following statement models the system.

- `#define Max 17;`
- `#define KNIGHT 1;`
- `#define LADY 2;`
- `#define KING 5;`
- `#define QUEEN 10;`

The above defines the constants in this model, where `#define` is a reserved keyword for defining a synonymy for a (integer or Boolean) constant or a proposition. `Max` represents the maximum number of time units. `KNIGHT` stands for the number of time units the knight needs. Similarly, we define the rest ones. We remark the users shall use constants (instead of variables) whenever possible. Because constants never change, during verification they are not excluded from the system state information, and hence, using constants instead of variables save memory and maybe time also.
var Knight = 0;
var Lady = 0;
var King = 0;
var Queen = 0;
var time;

The above defines the variables in the system, where `var` is reserved keyword for introducing variables or arrays. Notice that PAT has a weak type system. Variable `Knight` is used to model whether the knight is at the southern side of the bridge or the northern side. It is of value 0 if the knight hasn't crossed the bridge, otherwise 1. Similarly, we define the rest. Variable `time` records the number of time units spent by far. The default value is 0.

South() = [time <= Max && Knight == 0 && Lady == 0]go_knight_lady{Knight = 1; Lady = 1; time = time+LADY;} -> North()

Norh() = [time <= Max && Knight == 0 && King == 0]go_knight_king{Knight = 1; King = 1; time = time+KING;} -> North()

[time <= Max && Knight == 0 && Queen == 0]go_knight_queen{Knight = 1; Queen = 1; time = time+QUEEN;} -> North()

[time <= Max && Lady == 0 && King == 0]go_lady_king{Lady = 1; King = 1; time = time+KING;} -> North()

[time <= Max && Lady == 0 && Queen == 0]go_lady_queen{Lady = 1; Queen = 1; time = time+QUEEN;} -> North()

[time <= Max && King == 0 && Queen == 0]go_king_queen{King = 1; Queen = 1; time = time+QUEEN;} -> North()

[time <= Max && Knight == 0]go_knight{Knight = 1; time = time+KNIGHT;} -> North()

[time <= Max && Lady == 0]go_lady{Lady = 1; time = time+LADY;} -> North()

[time <= Max && King == 0]go_king{King = 1; time = time+KING;} -> North()
North()

[] [time <= Max && Queen == 0]go_queen{Queen = 1; time = time+QUEEN;} -> North();

The above defines a process named South(), which models the system behaviors when the torch is at the southern side of the bridge. Naturally, there are multiple ways the people can cross the bridge. Each way is modeled as one line in the following form,

[condition]event{code} -> North()

Informally, it means that if the condition is true, then the event can occur, i.e., the code attached with the event can be executed. Notice that code here could contain while-loops, if-then-else, etc. For instance, at the first line, the condition states that the time is not be used up yet, the Knight and the Lady are both at the southern side of the bridge. If this is true, then the event go_knight_lady can occur, which in terms means that the variable Knight and Lady are set to be 1 (meaning they have crossed the bridge) and time is incremented by the number of time units needed by the lady. After that, the system behaves as process North, which will be defined later. Similarly, we can enumerate all possible ways of crossing the bridge, e.g., the knight goes together with the king or queen, the king goes with the lady or queen, and the queen goes with the lady. Notice that the operator '[]' denotes choice. That is, either one of the ways may occur. Choice is one of many useful compositional operators offered in PAT.

North() = [time <= Max && Knight == 1 && Lady == 1]back_knight_lady{Knight = 0; Lady = 0; time = time+LADY;} -> South()
[] [time <= Max && Knight == 1 && King == 1]back_knight_king{Knight = 0; King = 0; time = time+KING;} -> South()
[] [time <= Max && Knight == 1 && Queen == 1]back_knight_queen{Knight = 0; Queen = 0; time = time+QUEEN;} -> South()
[] [time <= Max && Lady == 1 && King == 1]back_lady_king{King = 0; time = time+KING;} -> South()
[] [time <= Max && Lady == 1 && Queen == 1]back_lady_queen{Lady = 0; time = time+KING;} -> South()}
In a very similar and simple way, the above defines process \textit{North}, in terms of what are the possible ways of crossing the bridge when the torch is at the northern side of the bridge. Notice that in process \textit{North()}, process \textit{South()} is invoked. This forms a mutual recursion, which is perfectly normal and safe in PAT. Having modeled all possible behaviors of the systems as the above processes, we are now ready to reason about the system.

- \#define goal (time<=Max && Knight==1 && Lady==1 && King==1 && Queen==1);
- \#assert South() reaches goal;

The question we are interested is whether it is feasible to cross the bridge within \textit{Max} number of time unit. The above shows one of the questions. The first line defines a proposition named \textit{goal}, which states that the time taken should be not greater than \textit{Max} and all people should be on the northern side of the bridge. The second line is the assertion, where \#assert is a reserved keyword. ' \texttt{reaches} ' is also a keyword. Informally, the assertion says that starting from process \textit{South()}, we will reach a state at which the proposition \textit{goal} is true. Notice that this is a reachability analysis task. Alternatively, we could define an LTL assertion as follows,
where '[]' is the temporal operator, which reads as "always" and '/' is the negation operator. Notice that '[]' in process definition has a different meaning with assertions. Informally speaking, this assertion says that starting from process $South()$, every system state reached satisfies the proposition "$!goal". A counterexample to this assertion would be a trace which leads to a state where "$goal" is satisfied.

After modeling, you may either simulate the model by pressing F6 or click the Simulation button, or verify it by pressing F7 or click the Verification button. Once you click the Simulation button, a window will be prompt. You can choose process from a drop-list at the left top corner. Notice that only processes without parameters are available for selection. After click the Verification button, a verification window will be prompt. All assertions are listed. Double-click one of them or click the Verify button will trigger the model checker to perform the task. There are a number options to choose from. For now, we will simply use the default setting. In the example, you can select the first assertion, and click Verify, a trace which leads to a state where "goal" is true is printed. If you click the "Simulate Counter Example" button, the simulator is prompt with the trace visualized.

[TOP]

3.1.2.2 Dining Philosophers Example

In this tutorial, we use the dining philosopher example, which traditionally is a classic CSP model, to demonstrate how to model and verify systems. The model uses CSP features like alphabetized parallel composition. Moreover, in order to prove property of the system, a number of fairness constraints are involved.

The following is the problem description.

In 1971, Edsger Dijkstra set an examination question on a synchronization problem where five computers competed for access to five shared tape drive
peripherals. Soon afterwards the problem was retold by Tony Hoare as the dining philosophers' problem. The five philosophers sit at a circular table with a large bowl of spaghetti in the center. A fork is placed in between each philosopher, and as such, each philosopher has one fork to his or her left and one fork to his or her right. As spaghetti is difficult to serve and eat with a single fork, it is assumed that a philosopher must eat with two forks. The philosopher can only use the fork on his or her immediate left or right. It is further assumed that the philosophers are so stubborn that a philosopher only put down the forks after eating. The problem is generalized as $N$ philosophers sitting around a round table.

There are several interesting properties about the problem. One is a dangerous possibility of deadlock when every philosopher holds a left fork and waits perpetually for a right fork. The other is starvation. A philosopher may starve for different reasons, e.g., system deadlock, greedy neighbor, etc. In the following, we model the problem in PAT.

```c
#define N 5;
```
The above defines a global constant named \( N \), of value 5, which denotes the number of philosophers. Next, we model each object in the system as one process. There are two sets of objects, i.e., the philosophers and the forks.

\[
Phil(i) = \text{get}.i.(i+1)\%N \rightarrow \text{get}.i. \rightarrow \text{eat}.i \rightarrow \text{put}.i.(i+1)\%N \rightarrow \text{put}.i. \rightarrow \text{Phil}(i);
\]

We assume that the philosophers and forks are numbered from 0 to \( N-1 \), as shown in the figure. The above models a philosopher. \( Phil \) is the process name and \( i \) is a process parameter which informally denotes the i-th philosopher. Event \( \text{get}.i.(i+1)\%N \) models the event of i-th philosopher picking up the fork on his right hand side. % is the standard mod operator. Event \( \text{get}.i.i \) models the event of i-th philosopher picking up the fork on his left hand side. Event \( \text{eat}.i \) models the event of i-th philosopher eating. Event \( \text{put}.i.(i+1)\%N \) models the event of putting down the fork from the right hand side. Event \( \text{put}.i.i \) models the event of putting down the fork from the left hand side. Informally speaking, the philosopher picks up the forks, eats, and then puts down the forks. We remark all these events have no attached program, and hence, they may serve as synchronization barriers. Notice that an event name may be composed of process parameters or even global variables.

\[
Fork(x) = \text{get}.x.x \rightarrow \text{put}.x.x \rightarrow \text{Fork}(x) \[ \text{get}.(x-1)\%N.x \rightarrow \text{put}.(x-1)\%N.x \rightarrow \text{Fork}(x);
\]

The above models the other objects in the system, namely the forks. At the top level, the process is modeled using a (external) choice "[". Informally, it states that the fork can be picked up by the philosopher on the left or the one on the right. Notice that the events shared the same name with those in process \( Phil(i) \).

\[
\text{College}() = \|x:0..N-1@(Phil(x)||Fork(x));
\]

The above models the system. "||" is the parallel composition operator. The above is equivalent to the following: \( Phil(0) \| Fork(0) \| Phil(1) \| Fork(1) \| ... \| Phil(N-1) \| Fork(N-1) \| Fork(N-1) \)
The semantics of the "||" operator is that all processes execute in parallel. What's more, if an event (without attached program) is shared by multiple processes (i.e., the process's alphabet contains this event), then all those processes must synchronize on the event. For instance, the event get.0.1 can only occur when process Phil(0) and process Fork(1) both engage in the event.

\[
\text{Implementation() = College() = }
\{\text{get.0.0, get.0.1, put.0.0, put.0.1, eat.1, get.1.1, get.1.2, put.1.1, put.1.2, get.2.2, get.2.3, put.2.2, put.2.3, eat.3, get.3.3, get.3.4, put.3.3, put.3.4, eat.4, get.4.4, get.4.0, put.4.4, put.4.0}\};
\]

The above defines a process which behaves exactly as process College() excepts that all events but eat.0 are hidden. The operator "\" reads as "hide".

\[
\text{Specification() = eat.0} \rightarrow \text{Specification();}
\]

The above defines a process which repeatedly engages in event eat.0. Its role will be explained in detail later. The above completes the modeling of the system. Next, we analyze the system by asserting different properties.

\#assert College() deadlockfree;

The above asserts that process College() is deadlock-free, where "deadlockfree" is a reserved keyword. A system is deadlock-free if and only if the system will never enter a state while there is no further moves.

\#assert College() \models \square<> eat.0;

The above asserts that process College() satisfies the LTL property which reads "always eventually eat.0 is engaged". Or equivalently, the 0-th philosopher shall not starve to death. Notice that instead of a proposition, an event is used as part of the LTL. We found that this is particularly useful for event-based specifications.
The above demonstrates a different kind of assertion. Instead of using LTL, it asserts that process `Implementation()` (traces) refines process `Specification()`. In other words, all traces of process `Implementation()` must be allowed by process `Specification()`. Because the only traces of `Specification()` are finite sequences of event `eat.0`. This assertion simply states that it is possible in process `Implementation()` that the 0-philosopher eats (possibly infinitely). Notice there is a range of other refinement relationships as well.

We are now ready to verify the system. Open the Verifier (by clicking Verification or pressing F7) and double-click the first assertion: "#assert College() deadlockfree;". The following message is printed in the output window.

```
********Verification Result********
The Assertion (College() deadlockfree) is NOT valid.
The following trace leads to a deadlock situation.
<init -> get.0.1 -> get.0.0 -> eat.0 -> put.0.1 -> get.1.2 -> get.1.1 -> eat.1 -> put.0.0 -> get.4.0 -> put.1.2 -> get.2.3 -> put.1.1 -> get.0.1 -> get.1.2 -> get.3.4>
```

```
********Verification Setting********
Admissible Behavior: All
Search Engine: First Witness Trace using Depth First Search
System Abstraction: False
```

```
********Verification Statistics********
Visited States:59
Total Transitions:61
Time Used:0.0041809s
Estimated Memory Used:8897.464KB
```
The first part of the message states the verification result, i.e., the assertion is not valid. A trace which leads to the deadlock state is printed. The second part of the message reveals details on the analysis technique. The last part provides statistics on the number of system states/transitions explored, the search depth and time/memory usage. Notice that because PAT is implemented in C#, the memory usage is only estimated because of garbage collection.

The printed trace reveals a deadlock situation where each and every philosopher holds one fork and waits. A counterexample produced by the verifier often reveals a bug in the model (and probably in the system). Often, the model needs to be modified and re-verified. There are multiple ways in this case to avoid the deadlock situation. The following models one of the ways.

- **Phil0() = get.0.0 -> get.0.1 -> eat.0 -> put.0.0 -> put.0.1 -> Phil0();**
- **College_deadlockfree() = Phil0() || Fork(0) || (||x:{1..N-1}@(Phil(x)||Fork(x)));**
- **#assert College_deadlockfree() deadlockfree;**
- **#assert College_deadlockfree() |= []<> eat.0;**

Process \textit{Phil0()} is different from \textit{Phil(0)} in that the forks are picked up in a different order. Re-open the Verifier and double click the assertion stating that College_deadlockfree() is deadlock free. This verifier reports that the assertion is true. Now, double-click the assertion "\textit{#assert College_deadlockfree() |= []<> eat.0;}". The following is printed.

- **Verification Result:**
  - ***The Assertion is NOT valid.***
- **Counterexample:** ***init -> get.3.4 -> get.2.3 -> get.1.2 -> get.1.1 -> eat.1 -> put.1.2 -> get.0.0 -> put.1.1 -> get.1.2 -> get.0.1 -> put.0.1 -> (get.1.1 -> eat.1 -> put.1.2 -> put.1.1 -> get.1.2 -> )***
- **Verification Setting:**
  - \textit{method: SCC-based Model Checking}
• partial order reduction: True
• fairness: no fairness
• Verification Statistics
• Visited States:382
• Total Transitions:598
• Search Depth:191
• Time Used:0.0298512s
• Estimated Memory Used:56443.608KB

The highlighted part of the trace forms a loop. In this counterexample trace, the 1-th philosopher keeps picking up the forks and eating, whereas the 0-th philosopher keeps waiting all the time. By a simple argument, it can be shown that this is not a fair trace! Now, selecting the option "Event-level weak fairness" and click Verify again, a longer trace is printed as a counterexample this time. Simulate this trace and you will see a complicated loop. The reason is that weak fairness guarantees that if an action is always enabled, eventually it occurs. However, in this model, because a philosopher shared forks with his neighbors, if one of his neighbors is infinitely faster than he is, the fork is not always there, instead, it is only repeatedly there. To avoid this situation, we need (at least) event-level strong fairness! Now, selecting the option "Event-level strong fairness" and click Verify again. The assertion is proved.

[TOP]

3.1.2.3 Multi-Lift System Example

In this tutorial, we use a multi-lift system as an example to demonstrate various aspects of specification and verification using PAT. The multi-lift system has complicated dynamic behaviors as well as nontrivial data states. The single-lift system has been modeled using many modeling languages including CSP. The following is a brief description of the system.
The system contains multiple components, e.g., the users, the lifts, the floors, the internal button panels, etc. There are non-trivial data components and data operations, e.g., the internal requests and external requests and the operations to add/delete requests. For simplicity, we assume there is no central controller for assigning external requests. Instead, each lift functions on its own to find and serve requests, in the following way. Initially, a lift resides at the ground level ready to travel upwards. Whenever there is a request (from the internal button panel or outside button) for the current residing floor, the lift opens the door and later closes it. Otherwise, if there are requests for a floor on the current traveling direction (e.g., a request for floor 3 when the lift is at floor 1 traveling upwards), then the lift keeps traveling on the current direction. Otherwise, the lift changes its direction. Other constraints on the system include that a user may only enter a lift when the door is open, there could be an internal request if and only if there is a user inside, etc.

Shared variables offer an alternative means of communication among processes (which reside at the same computing device or are connected by wires with negligible transmission delay). They record the global state and make the information available to all processes. In the lift example, the internal/external requests can be naturally modeled as shared arrays. In CSP#, they are declared as follows.

- \#define NoOfFloor 3;
- \#define NoOfLift 2;
- var extUpReq[NoOfFloor];
- var extDownReq[NoOfFloor];
- var intRequests[NoOfLift][NoOfFloor];
- var doorOpen[NoOfLift];

Where "define" and "var" are reserved keywords. The former defines a global constant, e.g., "NoOfFloor" which denotes the number of floors and "NoOfLift" which
denotes the number of lifts. The latter defines a variable, e.g., "extUpReq" and "extDownReq" which store external requests, "intRequests" which store internal requests and "doorOpen" which captures lift doors' states. CSP# has a weak type system (like JSP) and therefore type information is not necessary for variable declaration. By default, all the above defined are treated as arrays of integers. In particular, elements in "extUpReq" (or "extDownReq") are binary: 1 at j-th position means that there is a request for traveling upwards (or downwards) at j-th floor; 0 means no request. Two dimensional array "intRequests" stores internal requests from all lifts. In particular, the internal request for the j-th floor from the i-th lift is stored at "intRequests[i][j]" in the array. Elements in "intRequests" are binary: 1 means that the floor has been requested and 0 means not requested. Elements in array "doorOpen" range from -1 to "NoOfFloor-1". The i-th element of "doorOpen" is -1 if and only if the door of i-th lift is closed, otherwise it is j such that j >= 0 if and only if the i-th lift has opened door at j-th floor. We assume that initially all doors are closed. We remark if the Z language is used for specification, specific types for elements in the arrays may be defined to constrain their values. In CSP#, we instead use PAT to verify that the constraints hold given any system behavior.

Associated with the variables are data operations which query or modify the variables. In the lift system, whenever a lift opens its door, the requests must be updated accordingly. For instance, the codes shown below clear the requests when the i-th lift opens the door at level-th floor. Let dir be the current traveling direction (1 for upwards and -1 for downwards). The first line clears internal requests, by simply resetting the respective position in array "intRequests" to 0. The rest clears external requests. Only the request along the lift's traveling direction is cleared.

- \( intRequests[i][j][level] = 0; \)
- \( if \ (dir > 0) \{
    \  extUpReq[level] = 0;
\}
- \( else \{ \)
A more complicated operation is to determine whether there are requests along the current traveling direction, so as to determine whether a lift should keep traveling in the same direction or to change direction. This operation may be implemented by the codes below, where "level" is a variable recording the floor that the lift is residing at, "index" is a loop counter and "result[i]" records the result (0 for no such request and 1 for yes). A while-loop is used to search for a request along the current traveling direction, e.g., if the lift is traveling upwards, we search for a request for (or from) an upper floor. The search starts with the next floor "level+dir" and stops when the ground or top floor is reached.

A system may contain multiple data operations, each of which is terminating and is assumed to be executed atomically. They can be implemented using the CSP# syntax as shown above, or they can be implemented using existing programming languages. For instance, we offer the keyword call in PAT to allow invocation of data operations (as atomic events) implemented externally as C# static methods in CSP# models. Data operations may be invoked alternatively or in parallel. In CSP#, data operations can be treated as atomic events and composed using compositional operators. From another point of view, we allow an event to be associated with an optional sequential terminating program. For instance, the program above may be labeled as event "checkIfToMove.i.level", which then can be used to constitute CSP process expressions, e.g., refer to later discussion. Data races are prevented by not allowing synchronization of events containing procedural code.

```csharp
    extDownReq[level] = 0;

    }

    if (extUpReq[index] != 0 || extDownReq[index] != 0 || intRequests[i][index] != 0) {
        intRequests[i][index] = 0;
```

```csharp
    index = level+dir;
    result[i] = 0;
    while (index >= 0 && index < NoOfFloor && result[i] == 0) {
        if (extUpReq[index] != 0 || extDownReq[index] != 0 ||
            intRequests[i][index] != 0) {
```

```csharp
```
result[i] = 1;

} else {
    index = index + dir;
}

The high-level compositional operators in CSP capture common system behavior patterns. They are very useful in system modeling. Furthermore, process equivalence can be proved or disproved by appealing to algebraic laws which are defined for the operators. In CSP#, we reuse most of the operators and integrate them with our extensions in a rigorous way so as to maximally preserve the algebraic laws.

In CSP#, we support global variables which are globally accessible, process parameters which are accessible in the respective process expression and local variables which are accessible in one data operation. We restrict the use of local variables in general. In particular, local variables introduced as process parameters or variables to store channel inputs cannot be modified by event associated programs. They can, however, be modified indirectly.

The following is a process "Lift" which concisely models the behavior of one lift.

\[
\text{Lift}(i, \text{level}, \text{dir}) = \\
\text{if } ((\text{dir} \gt 0 \&\& \text{extUpReq}[\text{level}] == 1) \lor (\text{dir} \lt 0 \&\& \text{extDownReq}[\text{level}] == 1) \lor \text{intRequests[i][\text{level}] == dir}) \{ \\
\text{opendoor}.i \{ \\
\text{doorOpen}[i] = \text{level}; \\
\text{intRequests[i][\text{level}] = 0}; \\
\text{if } (\text{dir} > 0) \{ \\
\text{extUpReq}[\text{level}] = 0; \\
\}
\text{else} \{ \\
\}
\} \\
\]
extDownReq[level] = 0;
}
} ->
closedoor.{doorOpen[i] = -1} -> Lift(i, level, dir)
}
else {
    checkIfToMove.i.level{
        index = level+dir;
        result[i] = 0;
        while (index >= 0 && index < NoOfFloor && result[i] == 0)
        {
            if (extUpReq[index] != 0 || extDownReq[index] != 0 || intRequests[i][index] != 0) {
                result[i] = 1;
            } else {
                index=index+dir;
            }
        }
    } ->
    if (result[i] == 1) {
        moving.i.dir ->
        if (level+dir == 0 || level+dir == NoOfFloors-1) {
            Lift(i, level+dir, -1*dir)
        } else {
            Lift(i, level+dir, dir)
        }
    } else {
        ...
if ((level == 0 && dir == 1) || (level == NoOfFloors-1 && dir == -1)) {
    Lift(i, level, dir)
}
else {
    changedir.i.level -> Lift(i, level, -1*dir)
}
};

Notice that the process has multiple parameters, namely "i" which is an identifier of the lift, "level" which denotes the residing floor and $dir$ which denotes the current traveling direction (1 for traveling upwards and -1 for downwards). The condition at line 7 is used to check whether there is a request for the current floor, with the correct traveling direction if it is external. If yes, then the door is opened, the requests for the floor are cleared (using the code presented above), and then the door is closed. Otherwise, the lift checks whether to continue traveling on the same direction (using the code presented above). If the result is 1, then the lift moves to the next floor. Otherwise, the lift changes its direction and then repeats from the start. In this example, we have events which are associated with programs and simple events like "moving.i.dir". The rest of the system model is presented below.

var index;
var result[NoOfLift];
Users() = ||| x:{0..2} @ aUser();
aUser() = [] pos:{0..NoOfFloor-1} @ (ExternalPush(pos);
Waiting(pos));
ExternalPush(pos) = case {
    pos == 0 : pushup.pos{extUpReq[pos] = 1} -> Skip
    pos == NoOfFloor-1 : pushdown.pos{extDownReq[pos] = 1} ->
        Skip
default : pushup.pos{extUpReq[pos] = 1} -> Skip []
pushdown.pos{extDownReq[pos] = 1} -> Skip

};

Waiting(pos) = [] i:{0..NoOfLift-1} @ ([doorOpen[i] == pos]enter.i -> [x:{0..NoOfFloor-1} @ (push.x{intRequests[i][x] = 1} -> [doorOpen[i] == x]exit.i.x -> User()));

LiftSystem() = Users() ||| (||| x:{0..NoOfLift-1} @ Lift(x, 0, 1));

The first two lines define the rest of the variables. Then we model users' behavior in the lift system. The behavior of three users is defined as the interleaving of each user, where "||| x:[i..j] @ P(x)" is equivalent to "P(i) ||| ... ||| P(j)". Behavior of a user is specified as process "aUser". Each user may initially be at any floor. This is captured using indexed external choice. The user pushes a button (for traveling upwards or downwards, specified as "ExternalPush(pos)") and then waits for the lift to come (specified as "Waiting(pos)").

A "case" statement, which is a syntactic sugar for multiple if-then-else statements, is used in process "ExternalPush(pos)". We remark that the conditions in the case statement are evaluated in the order until one which evaluates to be true is found. Otherwise, the "default" branch is taken. In the example, if the user is at the ground floor or the top one, only one direction to travel can be requested. Otherwise, the user may choose either to go upwards or downwards. Lines 5 to 7 capture how the external requests are updated.

The user then waits until a lift opened its door at the user's floor (captured by condition "doorOpen[i] == pos") and then enters the lift. We remark that this model allows users to enter the lift with the wrong traveling direction (which may happen in real world). After making an internal request, the user may exit when the door is opened again at his/her destination floor. The lift system is modeled as the interleaving of users and multiple lifts. Initially, the lifts are residing at the ground floor, ready to travel upwards. In this
example, we demonstrate how variable updates and compositional operators may be used together seamlessly to capture system behavior.

Once we have a model, we may use PAT to simulate its behaviors. Alternatively, we may write assertions about critical system properties and invoke the PAT model checkers to examine the model in order to find counterexamples, as follows.

- `#assert LiftSystem() deadlockfree;`
- `#define pr1 extUpReq[0] > 0;`
- `#define pr2 extUpReq[0] == 0;`
- `#assert LiftSystem() |= [] (pr1 -> <> pr2) && [] <> moving.0`

### 3.1.3 Miscellaneous

#### 1 Process Parameters vs. Global Variables

Process Parameters (PP) and Global Variables (GV)'s possible usages are shown in the following table. The key difference is that Process Parameters can not be updated during the evaluation. This is a price to pay for efficient system exploration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PP</th>
<th>GV</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Used in event expressions</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td><code>var x = 0;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>P(i) = a.x -&gt; P(i);</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>P(i) = a.i -&gt; P(i);</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used as parameter for process</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td><code>var x = 0;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>P(i) = a -&gt; P(x);</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LHS of event assignment</td>
<td>RHS of event assignment</td>
<td>Channel output expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>var x = 0;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P(i) = a{x=9;} -&gt; P(i);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: Channel input variables behave similarly to process parameters within their valid scope. Local variables behave similarly to global variables within their valid scope.

2 PAT Type System

The input languages of PAT are weak typing (a.k.a. loose typing) languages and therefore no typing information is required when declaring a variable. The process parameters and channel input variables can take in values with different types at different time. As long as there is no type mismatch (e.g., integer is used as an array or Boolean), the execution will proceed. Otherwise, invalid type casting exception will be thrown.

The advantage claimed of weak typing is that it requires less effort on the part of the programmer than strong typing, because the compiler or interpreter implicitly performs certain kinds of conversions. However, one claimed disadvantage is that weakly typed programming systems catch fewer errors at compile time and some of these might still remain after testing has been completed.

3 No-Synchronization on Data Operations

This is a common problem raised by many users that, for the following program, can the two processes P() and Q() synchronise on the event a? If not, then how to make them synchronise on 'a' and preserve the execution of statement block ({x++}) in an atomic fashion?

- var x=0;
- P() = a{x++} -> b -> P();
- Q() = a -> c -> P();
- System() = P() || Q();

Answer:
No-Synchronization on Data Operations is a design decision to void data race. If two data operations can synchronize, the update of the same global variable can lead to data race. Therefore, PAT will give a warning that if there one data operation and an event with same in different processes running in parallel.

Back to the question, a intuitive solution is to put the event 'a' and increment statement in an atomic action as follows:

- \( P() = \text{atomic}(a \rightarrow \text{update}(x++) \rightarrow \text{Skip}); b \rightarrow \text{Skip}; \)
- \( Q() = a \rightarrow c \rightarrow \text{Skip}; \)
- \( a\text{System}() = P() || Q(); \)

Then \( x \) will be updated right after \( a \) is engaged, and \( a \) will be synchronised.

The other possible solution could be:

- \( P() = a \rightarrow \text{update}(x++) \rightarrow a1 \rightarrow b \rightarrow P(); \)
- \( Q() = a \rightarrow a1 \rightarrow c \rightarrow P(); \)

4 Tips on using user defined data structures

Note that there is no difference between user defined types and normal variables (e.g. \( \text{var x =1;} \)). Only when the process parameter is used as user defined types, it is user's responsibility to make sure that the correct variable type is passed in since most of PAT modules don't have explicit types. See the example below.

```plaintext
#import "PAT.Lib.Set"

\var<Set> set1;

Q() = P(set1);

P(i) = initialize{i.Add(1);}-> ([i.GetSize() > 0] Skip);

Warning:
```
When the user defined data variable (declared as global variable) is used in conditions (if-then-else/guard/while-loop), the operation should be side-effect free. One example is the guard expression "i.GetSize() > 0". Otherwise the verification results may not be correct.

When user defined data structure is used as process parameter, if the parameter in the process updates the data structure, the verification/simulation maybe wrong and unexpected. For instance the following example, i is an object used in both branch of the choice operator, so the effect of executing add1 will stay even the actual branch selected is add2. In the simulator, you will find that after executing event add2, the value of set1 can become [1,2]. The root of this cause is the pointer problem. PAT will give warnings for such usage during parsing. It is user's responsibility to make sure the usage is correct.

```plaintext
# import "PAT.Lib.Set"

var<Set> set1;

Q() = P(set1);

P(i) = add1{i.Add(1);} -> Skip [] add2{i.Add(2);} -> Skip;
```

### 5 Tips on using string in LTL assertions.

PAT allows string in LTL assertions for complicated events like channel array events. However we don’t do more refined parsing for the string. Therefore, we just compare the string with the event name. See the example below.

```
channel c[3] 1;

Sender(i) = c[i]!i -> Sender(i);
Receiver() = c[0]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[1]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[2]?x -> a.x -> Receiver();

System() = (||| i:{0..2}@Sender(0)) ||| Receiver();
```


```markdown
#assert System() |= []<> "c[1].value"; //Wrong

#assert System() |= []<> "c[1].1";

In the first assertion, value will not be instantiated to be 0, 1, or 2. So you have to specify the instance of the vaule clearly for the verification like the second assertion.

6 Operator Precedence

The operators at the top of the table bind more tightly than those lower down.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Operators</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>a[0]</td>
<td>Array Expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>call (operation, arg1, ..., argn) Method Call</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+expr, -expr</td>
<td>Unary Plus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>!expr</td>
<td>Not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expr++, expr--</td>
<td>Unary Addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*, /, %</td>
<td>Multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+, -</td>
<td>Addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;, &gt;, &lt;=, &gt;=</td>
<td>Ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>==, !=</td>
<td>Equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;,</td>
<td>, ^</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>xor</td>
<td>Exclusive Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>Conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process Definition</td>
<td>chan!expr, chan?expr</td>
<td>Channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e-&gt;P</td>
<td>Event Prefix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>case {</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cond1: P1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>default: P</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>atomic(P)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>if (cond) { P } else { Q }</td>
<td>Conditional Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ifa (cond) { P } else { Q }</td>
<td>Atomic Conditional Choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ifb (cond) { P }</td>
<td>Blocking Conditional Choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[cond]P</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P; Q</td>
<td>Sequential Composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P{e1, ..., en}</td>
<td>Hiding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P interrupt Q</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P[^*]Q</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P&lt;&gt;Q</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
### 3.2 Real-Time System (RTS) Module

Specification and verification of real-time systems are important research topics which have practical implications. During the last decade, a popular approach for specifying real-time systems is based on the notation of Timed Automata. TimedAutomata is powerful in designing real-time models with explicit clock variables. Real-time constraints are captured by explicitly setting/resetting clock variables. A number of mechanized verification tools support for Timed Automata have proven to be successful (e.g., Uppaal, KRONOS, TEMPO, RED and Timed COSPAN).

Models based on Timed Automata often adapt a simple structure, e.g., a network of Timed Automata with no hierarchy. The benefit is that efficient model checking is made feasible. Nonetheless, designing and verifying real-time systems are becoming an increasingly difficult task due to the widespread applications and increasing complexity of such systems. High-level requirements for real-time systems are often stated in terms like **deadline**, **timeout**, and **waituntil**. In industrial case studies of real-time system verification, system requirements are often structured into phases, which are then composed sequentially. Unlike Statechart (with clocks) or timed process algebras, Timed Automata lacks of high-level compositional patterns (besides parallel composition of a network of Timed Automata) for hierarchical design. As a result, users often need to manually cast those terms into a set of clock variables with carefully calculated clock constraints. The process is tedious and error-prone.

This module supports real-time systems which are specified compositional timed processes. Timed processes running in parallel may communicate through either a shared memory or channel communications. Instead of explicitly manipulating clock
variables, a number of timed behavioral patterns are used to capture quantitative timing requirements, e.g., delay, timeout, deadline, waituntil, timed interrupt, etc. For such systems, a model checking algorithm can be used to explore on-the-fly all system behaviors by dynamically creating (only if necessary) and pruning clock variables (as early as possible), and maintaining/solving a constraint on the active clocks.

3.2.1 3.2.1 Language Reference

Real-Time System module is an extension of CSP module with operators which captures quantitative timing requirements.

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Section 3.2.1.3.

3.1.1.1 Global Definitions (this part is same as CSP module)

3.2.1.1 Process Definitions (this part extends CSP module with following timed syntax

- Delay
- Timeout
- Timed interrupt
- Waituntil
- Deadline
- Within
- Atomic Sequence

3.2.1.2 Assertions (this part extends CSP module)

- Timed Divergence-free
- Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)
3.2.1.1 Timed Process Definitions

A process is defined as an equation in the following syntax,

\[ P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \text{Exp}; \]

where \( P \) is the process name, \( x_1, ..., x_n \) is an optional list of process parameters and \( \text{Exp} \) is a process expression. The process expression determines the computational logic of the process. A process without parameters is written either as \( P() \) or \( P \). A defined process may be referenced by its name (with the valuations of the parameters). Process referencing allows a flexible form of recursion.

\textbf{Stop}

The deadlock process is written as follows,

\[ \text{Stop} \]

The process does absolutely nothing. It allows time elapsing.

\textbf{Skip}

The process which terminates is written as follows,

\[ \text{Skip} \]

The process terminates, possibly after delaying for a while, and then behaves exactly the same as \textit{Stop}.

\textbf{Event prefixing}
A simple event is a name for representing an observation. Given a process $P$, the following describes a process which performs $e$ first and then behaves as specified by process $P$.

$$e -> P$$

where $e$ is an event. An event is the abstraction of an observation. Event prefixing is a common construct for describing systems. The following describes a simple vending machine which takes in a coin and dispatches a coffee every time.

$$VM() = insertcoin -> coffee -> VM();$$

Where event $insertcoin$ models the event of inserting a coin into the machine and event $coffee$ models the event of getting coffee out of the machine. An event may be in a compound form, e.g., $x.exp1.exp2$ where $x$ is a name and $exp1$ and $exp2$ are expressions which are composed variables (e.g., process parameters, channel input variables or global variables). For instance,

$$Phil(i) = get.i.(i + 1)\%N -> Rest();$$

where $i$ is a parameter of the process. We remark event expressions which contains global variables, though allowed, may result in runtime exception if combined with alphabetized parallel composition. Refer to parallel composition for details.

**Note:** event name is an arbitrary string of form ('a'..'z'|'A'..'Z'|'_') ('a'..'z'|'A'..'Z'|'0'..'9'|'_')*. However, global variable names, global constant names, process names, process parameter names, propositions names can not be used as event name. One exception is the channel names are allowed, because we may want to use channel name in a specific process to simulate the channel behaviors and use refinement checking to compare with real channel events.

**Note:** An indefinite amount of time may elapse before the event occurs.
Statement Block inside Events (aka Data Operations)

An event can be attached with assignments which update global variables as in the following example,

\[ add\{x = x+1;\} \rightarrow Stop; \]

where \( x \) is a global variable.

In general, an event may be attached with a statement block of a sequential program (which may contain local variables, if-then-else, while, math function etc.). This kind of event-prefix process is called data operation in PAT. The exact syntax of the statements can be found in Grammar Rules. Notice that the sequential program is considered as an atomic action. That is, no interleaving of other processes before the sequential program finishes. In other words, once started, the sequential program continues to execute until it finished without being interrupted. From another point of view, the event can be viewed as a labeled piece of code. The event name is used for constructing meaningful counterexamples (or associating fairness with the code, as discussed below). For instance, the following process can be used to find the maximum value of a given array.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{var} \ array & = [0,2,4,7,1,3]; \\
\text{var} \ max & = -1; \\
\text{P()} & = \text{findmax}\{ \\
\text{var} \ index & = 0; \\
\text{while} \ (index < 6) \{ \\
\text{if} \ (max < array[index]) \{ \\
\text{max} & = array[index]; \\
\} \\
\text{index} & = index+1; \\
\} \} \rightarrow P();
\end{align*}
\]
**Note:** both global variable (e.g., array, max) and local variables (e.g., index) are allowed to be used and updated in the sequential program. While process arguments and channel input variables can only be used without being updated. The scope of the local variable is only inside the sequential program and starts from the place of declaration. PAT does not support process level local variables so that there is no need to maintain a changing heap/stack to gain the efficiency. Alternatively, process level local variables can be modeled using global variables easily.

**Note:** Data operation supports local variable array, assume the following process is valid in PAT:

```
event {var array[5];} -> Process
```

where local variable array's (here is the array) elements are initialized to zero.

**Note:** the semi-colon in the last expression in the statement block is optional for the simplicity of modeling.

**Note:** PAT supports two assignment syntax sugars ++, --. x++ is same as x=x+1. y-- is same as y = y-1. y=x++ is same as x = x +1; y = x; There is no support for other shorthands, such as ++b, --b, b *= 2, b += a, etc. Where needed, their effect can be reproduced by using the non-shortened equivalents. The following example shows the usage of ++ and --, where the final values of x and y are both 3.

```
var x = 2;

var y;
P() = add{x++;} -> minus{x-->} -> event{y=x++;} -> Skip;
```

**Invisible Events**

User can explicitly write invisible event (i.e., tau event) by using keyword tau, e.g., tau -> Stop. In the tau event, statement block can still be attached. With the support of
tau event, you can avoid using hiding operator to explicitly hide some visible events by name them tau events. The second way to write an invisible event is to skip the event name of a statement block, e.g., \{x=x+1;\} -> Stop, which is equivalent to tau{x=x+1;} -> Stop.

**Note:** An invisible event is constrained to occur immediately.

**Channel output/input**

Processes may communicate through channels. Channel input/output is written in a similar way as simple event prefixing. Let \( P \) be a process expression.

- \( c!a.b \rightarrow P \) -- channel output
- \( c?x.y \rightarrow P \) -- channel input
- \( c?1 \rightarrow P \) -- channel input with expected value
- \( c?[x+y+9>10]x.y \rightarrow P \) -- channel input with guard expression

Where \( c \) is a channel, \( a \) and \( b \) are expressions which evaluates to values (at run time), while \( x \) and \( y \) are (local) variables which take the input values. A channel must be declared before it is used. For channel output, the compound value evaluated from both \( a \) and \( b \) is stored in the channel buffer (FIFO queue) if the buffer is not full yet. If the buffer is full, the process waits. For channel input \( c?x.y \), the top element on the buffer is retrieved and then assigned to local free variables \( x \) and \( y \) if the buffer is not empty. Otherwise, it waits. For channel input \( c?1 \), the top element on the buffer is retrieved if the buffer is not empty and the top element value is 1. Otherwise, it waits. For channel input \( c?[x+y+9>10]x.y \), the top element on the buffer is retrieved and then assigned to local free variable \( x \) and \( y \) if the buffer is not empty, and the guard condition \( x+y+9>10 \) is true. Otherwise, it waits. Note that in channel input, you can write expressions after \( c? \), but the expressions can not contain any global variables. You can put arbitrary number
of variables/expressions in the channel output/input by separating them using ".". The following example demonstrates how channel communication is used.

```plaintext
channel c 1;

Sender(i) = c!i -> Sender(i);
Receiver() = c?x -> a.x -> Receiver();

System() = Sender(5) || Receiver();
```

PAT supports synchronous channel communication, i.e., the channel output and its matching channel input are engaged together. The synchronous channel event will be displayed as `c.exp` for channel output `c!exp` and channel input `c?x`. To do synchronous channel communication, simply set the size of the channel to be 0. All the channel communications for non-zero channel are asynchronous.

Channel communication can also attach program for both synchronous and asynchronous channel.

```plaintext
channel c 0; //or channel c 1;
var x = 1;
P = c!x{ x = 2 } -> P;
Q = c?y{ x = y; } -> Q;
A = P || Q;
```

For the example above, the execution sequence is `c!x -> (x = 2) -> c?y -> (x = y)`.

**Note:** Channel input variables' scope is after the channel input event and within residing process. They can be referenced in the scope, but not updated.

**Note:** Parameter variables can be used in the expressions of channel input, e.g., `P(i) = c?i.i+1 -> Skip`. In this case, once the value of parameter `i` is known, `i and i+1` will be instantiated to constants, so that only matching channel output data will be received.
Furthermore, local free variable in channel input can also be used in follow-up channel input's expressions. e.g., \( P() = c!5 -> c?x -> c!6 -> c?x+1 -> \text{Skip} \); In this case, \( x \) is 5 and \( P \) can execute to \text{Skip}. Global variables CAN NOT be used in channel input expressions!

PAT also support channel arrays, which is a syntax suger to make the modeling easier if the channels are parameterized. The following syntax demonstrates how to use the channel array.

```
channel c[3] 1;

Sender(i) = c[i]!i -> Sender(i);
Receiver() = c[0]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[1]?x -> a.x -> Receiver() [] c[2]?x -> a.x -> Receiver();
```

```
System() = (||| i:{0..2}@Sender(i)) ||| Receiver();
```

**Note:** Two or N dimentional channel array can be simulated by using 1 dimentional channel array. Hence, we don't provide syntax support for that. For example \textit{channel} \( c[3][5] \) is same as \textit{channel} \( c[15] \), and \( c[2][3]!4 \) -> \textit{Skip} is same as \( c[2*N+3]!4 \) -> \textit{Skip}, where \( N \) is the first dimention.

**Channel operations**

PAT provides 5 channel operations to query the buffer information of \textit{asynchronous} channels: \textit{cfull}, \textit{cempty}, \textit{ccount}, \textit{csize}, \textit{cpeek}. The usage of these operations follows the normal static method call, i.e., \textit{call(channel_operation, channel_name)}. The meaning of each operation is explained below.

- **cfull**: a boolean function to test whether the an asynchronous channel is full or not. e.g. \textit{call(cfull, c)}.
- **cempty**: a boolean function to test whether the an asynchronous channel is empty or not. e.g. \textit{call(cempty, c)}. 
• **ccount**: an integer function to return the number of elements in the buffer of an asynchronous channel. e.g. \texttt{call(ccount, c)}.

• **csize**: an integer function to return the buffer size of an asynchronous channel. e.g. \texttt{call(cfull, c)}.

• **cpeek**: return the first element of an asynchronous channel. e.g. \texttt{call(cpeek, c)}.

**Note:** Parsing error message will be popped up if these operations are applied to a synchronous channel.

**Note:** Run time exception will be thrown if trying to cpeek an empty buffer.

**Sequential composition**

A sequential composition is written as,

\[ P; Q \]

where \( P \) and \( Q \) are processes. In this process, \( P \) starts first and \( Q \) starts immediately, without any delay, when \( P \) has finished.

**General/External/Internal choice**

In PAT (as in CSP), we distinguish among general choice, external choice and internal choice. General choice is resolved by any event. A general choice is written as follows,

\[ P \parallel Q \]

The choice operator \( \parallel \) states that either \( P \) or \( Q \) may execute. If \( P \) performs an event first, then \( P \) takes control. Otherwise, \( Q \) takes control. Notice that the semantic is a bit different from the external choice below.
External choice is resolved by the environment, e.g., the observation of a visible event (i.e., not tau event). Notice that if the first event of both P and Q is visible, then P\[Q and P[*]Q are equivalent. An external choice is written as follows,

\[ P[*]Q \]

The choice operator [*] states that either P or Q may execute. If P performs a visible event first, then P takes control. If Q performs a visible event first, then Q takes control. Otherwise, the choice remains.

Internal choice introduces non-determinism explicitly. The following models an internal choice,

\[ P <> Q \]

where either P or Q may execute. The choice is made internally and non-deterministically and immediately. Non-determinism is largely undesirable at design or implementation stage, whereas it is useful at modeling stage for hiding irrelevant information. For instance, it can be used to model the behaviors of a black-box procedure, where the exact details of the implementation are not available.

The generalized form of general/external/internal choice is written as,

\[ [] x:\{1..n\}@ P(x) -- \text{which is equivalent to } P(1) [] ... [] P(n) \]

\[ [*] x:\{1..n\}@ P(x) -- \text{which is equivalent to } P(1) [*] ... [*] P(n) \]

\[ <> x:\{1..n\}@ P(x) -- \text{which is equivalent to } P(1) <> ... <> P(n) \]

**Conditional Choice**

A choice may depend on a Boolean expression which in turn depends on the valuations of the variables. In PAT, we support the classic if-then-else as follows,
\[
\text{if} \ (\text{cond}) \ {\text{P}} \ \text{else} \ {\text{Q}}
\]

\[
\text{if} \ (\text{cond1}) \ {\text{P}} \ \text{else if} \ (\text{cond2}) \ {\text{Q}} \ \text{else} \ {\text{M}}
\]

where \text{cond} is a Boolean formula. If \text{cond} evaluates to true, the \text{P} executes, otherwise \text{Q} executes. Notice that the else-part is optional. The process \text{if}(false) \ {\text{P}} behaves exactly as process \text{Skip}.

PAT also provides atomic conditional choices, which perform the condition checking and first operation of \text{P/Q} together. This allows users to simulate CAS operator in distributed systems. The syntax is following:

\[
\text{ifa} \ (\text{cond}) \ {\text{P}} \ \text{else} \ {\text{Q}}
\]

**Note:** Notice that \text{P} above can not be a timed process due to some semantic complications.

PAT provides blocking conditional choices, which are similar to \text{guarded process}. The only difference is that the checking of blocking condition and the execution of \text{P} are separated in \text{ifb}. The syntax is following. Note that there is no \text{else} in \text{ifb}.

\[
\text{ifb} \ (\text{cond}) \ {\text{P}}
\]

**Note:** In \text{if} \ (\text{cond}) \ {\text{P}} \ \text{else} \ {\text{Q}}, time is allowed to elapse before the condition is evaluated, whereas in \text{ifa} \ (\text{cond}) \ {\text{P}} \ \text{else} \ {\text{Q}}, the condition is evaluated immediately when it becomes true;

**Note:** Side effect (i.e., update of the variable value) is not allowed in if condition (similarly for \text{guarded process} and case process process below). This restriction is mainly for using C# code in if condition. For example, a Boolean method \text{isEmpty} of a user defined list variable returns a false and also adds an element to the list. We add this restriction is purely for performance reason. If you really want to achieve this effect, you can put
the method call in an event prefix, and store the returned value in a global Boolean variable. The global variable can then be used in the if condition then.

**Case**

A generalized form of conditional choice is written as,

```
    case {
    cond1: P1
    cond2: P2
    default: P
    }
```

where `case` is a key word and `cond1`, `cond2` are Boolean expressions. If `cond1` is true, then `P1` executes. Otherwise, if `cond2` is true, then `P2`. And if `cond1` and `cond2` are both false, then P executes by default. The condition is evaluated one by one until a true one is found. In case no condition is true, the `default` process will be executed.

**Guarded process**

A guarded process only executes when its guard condition is satisfied. In PAT, a guard process is written as follows,

```
[cond] P
```

where `cond` is a Boolean formula and `P` is a process. If `cond` is true, `P` executes. Notice that different from conditional choice, if `cond` is false, the whole process will wait until `cond` is true and then `P` executes.

**Note:** Notice that `P` above can not be a timed process due to some semantic complications.

**Interleaving**
Two processes which run concurrently without barrier synchronization written as,

\( P ||| Q \)

where \( ||| \) denotes interleaving. Both \( P \) and \( Q \) may perform their local actions without synchronizing with each other except termination events. If one process generates termination event, this termination event cannot executed directly unless all processes are emitting a termination event. For example the following process will deadlock due to this constraint.

\[ \text{Skip} ||| \text{Stop} \]

Notice that \( P \) and \( Q \) can still communicate via shared variables or channels. The generalized form of interleaving is written as,

\( ||| x:\{0..n\} @ P(x) \)

PAT supports grouped interleaving processes or even infinite number of processes running interleavingly, similarly, for parallel composition and internal/external choices. All the syntaxes below are valid.

\( ||| \{50\} @ P(); //50 P() running interleavingly. \)

\( || \{..\} @ Q(); //infinite number of Q() running in parallel. \)

\[ [ x:\{0..2\} @ ( ( ||| \{x\} @ P) ||| ( ||| \{x\} @ Q)); // this is equivalent to (Skip|||Skip)[(( ||| \{1\} @P()) ||| ( ||| \{1\} @Q())) |||(( ||| \{2\} @P()) |||(( ||| \{2\} @Q())); \]

**Note:** \( ||| \{0\} @ P() \) is same as Skip.

**Note:** Looping variables can also be used in the process inside as process parameter. For example, the following definitions are all valid in PAT.
Note: in grouped processes, e.g., \( []x{:0..n}@P \) or \( || {0} @ P() \), \( n \) can be a global constant or process parameter, but not a global variable. We make this restriction for the performance reason. For example, the following definitions are all valid in PAT.

\[
\begin{align*}
#define \quad n \quad 10; \\
||x{:0..n}@P; \\
P(n) = |||x{:0..n}@Q;
\end{align*}
\]

**Parallel composition**

Parallel composition of two processes with barrier synchronization is written as,

\[ P || Q \]

where \( || \) denotes parallel composition. Different from interleaving, \( P \) and \( Q \) may perform lock-step synchronization, i.e., \( P \) and \( Q \) simultaneously perform an event. For instance, if \( P \) is \( a \rightarrow c \rightarrow \text{Stop} \) and \( Q \) is \( c \rightarrow \text{Stop} \), because \( c \) is both in the alphabet of \( P \) and \( Q \), it becomes a synchronization barrier. Therefore, at the beginning, only \( a \) can be engaged. After that, \( c \) is engaged by \( P \) and \( Q \) at the exactly same time. In general, all events which are in both \( P \) and \( Q \)'s alphabets must be synchronized. Notice that, which events are synchronization barriers depends on the alphabets of \( P \) and \( Q \). In order to know what are the enabled actions, we therefore must first calculate the alphabets.

In tools like **FDR**, the shared alphabet of a parallel composition must be explicitly given. In PAT, however, we have a procedure to automatically calculate alphabets. The alphabet of a process is the set of events that the process takes part in. For instance, given the process defined as follows,

\[ VM() = \text{insertcoin} \rightarrow \text{coffee} \rightarrow VM(); \]
The alphabet of $VM()$ is exactly the set of events which constitute the process expression, i.e., \{insertcoin, coffee\}. However, calculating the alphabet of a process is not always trivial. It may be complicated by two things. One is process referencing. The other is process parameters. In the above example, the process reference $VM()$ happens to be the same as the process whose alphabet is being calculated. Thus, it is not necessarily to unfold $VM()$ again. Should a different process is referenced, we must unfold that process and get its alphabet. For instance, assume $VM()$ is now defined as follows,

$$VM() = \text{insertcoin} \rightarrow \text{Inserted()};$$

$$\text{Inserted()} = \text{coffee} \rightarrow VM();$$

To calculate the alphabet of $VM()$, we must unfold process $\text{Inserted()}$ and combine alphabets of $\text{Inserted()}$ with \{insertcoin\}. Notice that a simple procedure must be used to prevent unfolding the same process again. However, even with such a procedure, it may still be infeasible to calculate mechanically the alphabet of a process. The complexity is due to process parameters. For instance, given the following process,

$$P(i) = a.i \rightarrow P(i+1);$$

Naturally, the unfolding is non-terminating. In general, there is no way to solve this problem. Therefore, PAT offers two compromising ways to get the alphabets. One is to use a reasonably simple procedure to calculate a default alphabet of a process. When the default alphabet is not as expected, an advanced user is allowed to define the alphabet of a process manually. We detail the former in the following.

First of all, alphabet of processes are calculated only when it is necessary, which means, only when a parallel composition is evaluated. This saves a lot of computational overhead. Processes in a large number of models only communicate through shared variables. If no parallel composition is present, there is no need to evaluate alphabets. We remark that when there is no shared abstract events, process $P || Q$ and $P ||| Q$ are exactly the same. Therefore, we recommend ||| when appropriate. When a parallel
composition is evaluated for the first time, the default alphabet of each sub-process is calculated (if not manually defined). The procedure for calculating the default alphabet works by retrieving all event constituting the process expression and unfolding every newly-met process reference. It throws an exception if a process reference is met twice with different parameters (which probably indicates the unfolding is non-terminating). In such a case, PAT expects the user to specify the alphabet of a process using the following syntax,

```plaintext
#alphabet P {...};
```

where \( P \) is process name and {...} is the set of events which is considered its alphabet. Notice that the event expressions may contain variables. The rules is that if process \( P(X) \) is defined, you may have alphabet definitions as follows,

```plaintext
#alphabet P {a.X};
```

Once the alphabets of \( P \) and \( Q \) are identified, we calculate their intersection. If \( P \) is ready to perform an event which is not in the intersection, it may simply proceed, so does \( Q \). If \( P \) is ready to perform an event in the intersection, it has to wait until \( Q \) is also ready to perform this event and then proceed together.

**Remarks:** Data operations (i.e. the events attached with programs) are not counted in the calculation of alphabets to avoid data race on updating same global variables. The detailed explanation and examples are available [here (Question 3)]

**Remarks:** If process \( P \) is expected to have different alphabets in different places in the specification, a dummy may be defined to associate different alphabet with the same process.

```plaintext
Q1() = P();
#alphabet Q1 {x};
Q2() = P();
#alphabet Q2 {y};
```
The philosophy is that we see both the process expression and alphabet as signatures of a process (i.e., processes with the same process expression but different alphabets are essentially different processes!).

The generalized parallel composition is written as,

\[ \parallel x:0..n \parallel \at \ P(x); \]

The alphabet of each \( P(x) \) is calculated. An event can be engaged if and only if all processes whose alphabet contains this event are ready to perform it.

**Remarks:** The syntax sugar indexed event list can be used in the definition of alphabets. For example:

```plaintext
#define N 2;
P = e.0.0 -> e.0.1 -> e.0.2 -> turns -> e.1.0 -> e.1.1 -> e.1.2 -> e.2.0 -> e.2.1 ->
e.2.2 -> P;
#define alphabet P { x:0..N; y:0..N @ e.x.y };
```

The above definitions define the alphabet of process \( P \) as the set of all events except event \( \text{turns} \) appearing in its process definition.

**Interrupt**

Process \( P \) interrupt \( Q \) behaves as specified by \( P \) until the first visible event of \( Q \) is engaged which could be at any execution point of process \( P \), and then the control transfers to \( Q \). An execution trace of process \( P \) interrupt \( Q \) is just a trace of \( P \) up to an arbitrary point when the interrupt occurs, followed by any trace of \( Q \). The following is an example,

- \( \text{Err()} = \text{exception} \rightarrow \text{Err()} \);
- \( \text{Routine()} = \text{routine} \rightarrow \text{Routine()} \);
• `ExceptionHandling() = Routine() interrupt exception -> ExceptionHandling();`

• `System = Err() || ExceptionHandling();`

where `Routine()` is a process which performs normal daily task, `Err()` is a process modeling errors happened in the environment and `ExceptionHandling()` is a process which performs necessary actions for error handling. For System, whenever an exception occurs (modeled as event exception), process `ExceptionHandling()` takes the control over.

**Note:** For process `P interrupt Q`, the interrupting event from Q must be a visible event (not `tau`). If a `tau` event is detected, a runtime exception will be thrown.

**Hiding**

Process `P \ A` where `A` is a set of events turns events in `A` to invisible ones. Hiding is applied when only certain events are interested. Hiding may be used to introduce nondeterminism. The following is an example,

```
dashPhil() = Phil() \ {getfork.1, getfork.2, putfork.1, putfork.2};
Phil() = getfork.1 -> getfork.2 -> eat -> putfork.1 -> putfork.2 -> Phil();
```

where process `Phil()` specifies a philosopher who gets two forks in order and then eats and then puts down both forks in the same order. Process `dashPhil()`, however, hides the events of getting up or putting down the forks. We can imagine that the philosopher is so quick that no one can tell how he gets the forks. People can only tell when he is eating. By hiding those events, the rest of the system can not observe those hidden events. We remark that hiding is often used to prevent unwanted synchronization in parallel composition.

**Note:** The syntax sugar indexed event list can be used for defining a set of events with the same prefix. For example, the definition for process `dashPhil()` can be rewritten as the following.
Atomic Process

The syntax is $\text{atomic}\{P\}$, where $P$ is any process definition. The keyword $\text{atomic}$ allows user to associate higher priority with a process, i.e., if the process has an enabled event, the event will execute before any events from non-atomic processes. Furthermore, the enabled event will occur immediately. For instance, given a process $\text{atomic}\{a \rightarrow b \rightarrow \text{Skip}\};$ After a have engaged, b will be engaged immediately. Should b be blocked (e.g. it must be synchronized with another process which is not ready), then the process idles until b is enabled and then engages b immediately.

**Note:** atomic process can contain timing constructs now. Consider the following:

$$P = \text{atomic}\{(\text{Wait}[5]; a \rightarrow \text{Skip}) ||| b \rightarrow Q;\}$$

The tau (time tick) transition geneated by by Wait[5] will have higher priority than b, and event a will be bundled together.

If a sequence of statements is enclosed in parentheses and prefixed with the keyword $\text{atomic}$, this indicates that the sequence is to be executed as one super-step, not to be interleaved by other processes. In the interleaving of process executions, no other process can execute statements from the moment that an event in an atomic process is $\text{enabled}$ until the last enabled one has completed. The sequence can contain arbitrary process statements, and may be non-deterministic. Once an atomic process is $\text{enabled}$, it immediately gains a higher priority. It continues to execute until it is disabled. Once all atomic processes are enabled, other non-atomic processes are then allowed to execute. If multiple atomic processes are enabled, then they interleave each other. In the following example, process $P$ and $Q$ will interleave each other, whereas $W$ will execute only after event c and f have occurred.
channel ch 0;

\[ P = \text{atomic}\{ a \rightarrow \text{ch!0} \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow \text{Skip}\}; \]

\[ Q = \text{atomic}\{ d \rightarrow \text{ch?0} \rightarrow e \rightarrow f \rightarrow \text{Skip}\}; \]

\[ W = g \rightarrow \text{Skip} \]

\[ \text{Sys} = P || Q || W; \]

**Note:** Since PAT 3.4.2, the semantics of atomic process changed a little bit. In the example below, before PAT 3.4.2, event \( a \) and \( d \) are enabled at the same time when process \( \text{Sys} \) starts. After PAT 3.4.2, only \( d \) is enabled because enabled atomic process has higher priority than enabled events. This change allows us to use atomic consistently in CSP module and RTS module.

\[ P = a \rightarrow \text{atomic}\{ b \rightarrow c \rightarrow \text{Skip}\}; \]

\[ Q = \text{atomic}\{ d \rightarrow e \rightarrow f \rightarrow \text{Skip}\}; \]

\[ \text{Sys} = P || Q; \]

**Note:** atomic sequences can be used for state reduction for model checking, especially if the process is composed with other processes in parallel. The number of states may be reduced exponentially. In a way, by using \textit{atomic}, we may partial order reduction manually (without computational overhead). The general rule is that local events which are invisible to the verifying property and independent to other events shall be associated with higher priority.

**Note:** an atomic process inside other atomic process has no effect at all.

**Recursion**

Recursion is achieved through process referencing flexibly. The following process contains mutual recursion.
\[ P(i) = a \cdot i \rightarrow Q(i); \]
\[ Q(i) = b \cdot i \rightarrow P(i); \]

\textbf{System()} = P(1) \parallel Q(2);

\textbf{Note:} when invoking a process, the parameters can be any valid expression, e.g. \( P(x), P(x+1), P(\text{new List}()) \). Only when the process parameter is used as user defined types, it is user's responsibility to make sure that the correct variable type is passed in since most of PAT modules don't have explicit types. See the example below.

\begin{verbatim}
# import "PAT.Lib.Set";
var <Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = initialize{i.Add(1);}-> ([i.GetSize() > 0] Skip);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Warning:} when user defined data structure is used as parameter, if the parameter in the process updates the data structure, the verification/simulation maybe wrong and unexpected. For instance the following example, \( i \) is an object used in both branch of the choice operator, so the effect of executing \( \text{add1} \) will stay even the actual branch selected is \( \text{add2} \). In the simulator, you will find that after executing event \( \text{add2} \), the value of \( \text{set1} \) can become \([1,2]\). The root of this cause is the pointer problem.

\begin{verbatim}
# import "PAT.Lib.Set";
var <Set> set1;
Q() = P(set1);
P(i) = add1{i.Add(1);}-> Skip [ add2{i.Add(2);} -> Skip ];
\end{verbatim}

It is straightforward to use process reference to realize common iterative procedures. For instance, the following process behaves exactly as \( \text{while (cond) } \{ \text{P(); Q();} \} \);

\begin{verbatim}
Q() = if (cond) \{ P(); Q(); \};
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Assert}
Assertion process allows user to add an assertion in the program. PAT simulator and verifiers will check the assertion at run time. If the assertion is failed, a PAT runtime exception will be thrown to the user and the evaluation is stopped. The syntax of Assertion is as follows,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{var} & \quad x = 1; \\
P & = \text{assert}(x > 0); \text{e}\{x = x-1;\} \rightarrow P;
\end{align*}
\]

In addition to language features introduced in the **CSP module**, Real-Time System module adds 5 operators to model real-time systems, i.e., the **wait**, **timeout**, **timed interrupt**, **deadline** and **within** explained as follows.

**Note**: the time values in the 5 primitives can be arbitrary expressions with global constants and process parameter. **Global variables are not allowed in timed expression**.

**Delay**

A wait process \( \text{Wait}[t] \) delays the system execution for a period of \( t \) time units then terminates. For instance, process \( \text{Wait}[t]; P \) delays the starting time of \( P \) by exactly \( t \) time units.

**Timeout**

Process \( P \) **timeout**\([t]\) \( Q \) passes control to process \( Q \) if no event has occurred in process \( P \) before \( t \) time units have elapsed. For instance, if process \( (a \rightarrow P) \) **timeout**\([t]\) \( Q \) engages in event \( a \) before \( t \) time units have elapsed since the process is enabled, the process is transformed to \( P \), If \( a \) hasn't occur at time \( t \), the process transforms to \( Q \) (by a silent \( \tau \)-transition).

**Timed Interrupt**

Process \( P \) **interrupt**\([t]\) \( Q \) behaves as \( P \) until \( t \) time units elapse and then switches to \( Q \). For instance, process \( (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow \ldots) \) **interrupt**\([t]\) \( Q \) may engage in event \( a, b, c, \ldots \)
as long as \( t \) time units haven't elapsed. Once \( t \) time units have elapsed, then the process transforms to \( Q \) (by a silent \( \tau \)-transition).

**Deadline**

Process \( P_{\text{deadline}[t]} \) is constrained to terminate within \( t \) time units.

**Waituntil** (no longer supported)

The waituntil operator is a dual to \textit{deadline}. Process \( P_{\text{waituntil}[t]} \) behaves as \( P \) but will not terminate before \( t \) time units elapse. If \( P \) terminates early, it idles until \( t \) time units elapse.

**Within**

Literally, the \textit{within} operator forces the process to make an observable move within the given time frame. For example, \( P_{\text{within}[t]} \) says the first visible event of \( P \) must be engaged within \( t \) time units.

**Urgency**

In RTS module, we assume all the \textit{event prefix}, \textit{data operation} and \textit{channel communication} (channel input/channel output) takes arbitrary amount of time. Sometimes, we want the events takes no time (instantaneous events). The normal approach is to use (Process \( \text{within}[0] \)) to model this requirement. In RTS module, we introduce the concept of Urgent Event to simplify this kind of modeling. The supported syntax is shown in the following examples.

\[
\text{event\{program\} } \rightarrow \rightarrow \text{ Process}
\]

\[
c!x \rightarrow \rightarrow \text{ Process}
\]

\[
c?x \rightarrow \rightarrow \text{ Process}
\]
**Note:** there is a subtle difference between urgent event and within[0]. without[0] is defined to happen at time 0, but ->> is defined to happen as soon as possible.

\[ P1() = (a -> Skip) \text{ within}[0] || (Wait[1]; a -> Skip); //deadlocks because first event } a \text{ inside } \text{ within}[0] \text{ need to happen at time 0.} \]

\[ P2() = a \text{ -} >> \text{ Skip} || (Wait[1]; a -> Skip); //deadlock-free, first event } a \text{ takes no time, but can be delayed for 1 time unit and then synced with second } a \text{ event.} \]

**Note:** tau event in RTS module is an urgent event by default. A natural consequence is that, all events after hiding become tau event and take no time.

**Note:** the difference between urgent and atomic events are subtle. Intuitively, an urgent will occur as soon as it is enabled without a higher priority, whereas an atomic event will occur as soon as possible with a higher priority.

**Remark:** In PAT, clocks start automatically whenever necessary. For instance, given process \( a \rightarrow \text{Wait}[d] \), the clock measuring time elapsing for Wait[d] starts immediately after event a occurs.

**Remark:** The following language constructs are disallowed in real-time system model if processes P and Q below starts with timed process.

\[ [b]P \]

\[ ifa (b) \{P\} else \{Q\} \]

For example, assume the process is defined as \([b]\text{Wait}[5]\). It is rather confusing when Wait[5] should start to count. Consider the following scenario. After performing certain event, b becomes true. Intuitively, the clock should start ticking for Wait[5]. Now, before 5 time units elapses, some other event is performed, which makes b false. The question is then: should the clock associated with Wait[5] to be stopped or continue?
3.2.1.2 3.2.1.2 Assertions

RTS module supports all assertions in CSP Module. There are some notes below that users should be aware of.

**Note:** Based on the clock zone abstraction, RTS module can handle dense time systems (in contrast to discrete time or continuous time), i.e., all clock values can be rational numbers. RTS module supports only integer numbers, since a set of rational numbers can be converted to an "equivalent" set of integer number by multiplying the lowest common multiple.

**Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)**

In RTS module, we support the full set of LTL syntax except the X (next) operator.

**Refinement/ Equivalence**

In RTS module, the refinement and equivalence checking consider only events now. The time transitions are ignored.

3.2.1.3 3.2.1.3 Grammar Rules

Real-Time System is based on CSP Module extended with timed syntax as highlighted below. Other syntax can be found in CSP# Grammar Rules.

```
assertion
  : '#' 'assert' definitionRef
   (                          // 'X' is not allowed in LTL
    |="| '(' | ')' | ']' | '<> | (ID - 'X') | STRING | ')' | '?' | '&' | ']' | '<-' | '<=>' | '<-' | '<>' | '<' | 'INT' )+  // 'X' is not allowed in LTL
   | 'deadlockfree'
   | 'deterministic'
   | 'nonterminating'
   | 'reaches' ID withClause?
   | 'refines' definitionRef
   | 'refines' '<F>' definitionRef
```

refines '<FD>' definitionRef
| refines '<T>' definitionRef  //timed refinement

//process definitions

//definition
: ID ('(' (ID (',' ID )*)? ')')? '=' interleaveExpr ';'

interleaveExpr
: parallelExpr ('|||' parallelExpr)*
| '|||' (paralDef (';' paralDef )*) '@' interleaveExpr

parallelExpr
: internalChoiceExpr ('||' internalChoiceExpr)*
| '||' (paralDef (';' paralDef )*) '@' interleaveExpr

paralDef
: ID ':' '{' additiveExpression (',' additiveExpression)* '}'
| ID ':' '{' additiveExpression '..' additiveExpression '}'

paralDef2
: '{' '..' '}'
| '{' additiveExpression '}'

internalChoiceExpr
: externalChoiceExpr ('<>' externalChoiceExpr)*
| '<>' (paralDef (';' paralDef )*) '@' interleaveExpr

externalChoiceExpr
: interruptExpr ('[' interruptExpr]*
| '[' (paralDef (';' paralDef )*) '@' interleaveExpr

interruptExpr
: hidingExpr (interrupt' ('[expression']')? hidingExpr)*  //if there is a time expression, it is a timed interrupt

hidingExpr
: sequentialExpr ('\ '{ eventName (',' eventName )* '}'


sequentialExpr  
  : guardExpr (';' guardExpr)* ;

guardExpr  
  : timeoutExpr | ['guard' conditionalOrExpression ']') timeoutExpr ;

timeoutExpr  
  : withinExpr ('timeout'^ ['! expression ']')! withinExpr)* ;

withinExpr  
  : deadlineExpr | deadlineExpr 'within' ['expression'] (',' expression)? ]
  ;

deadlineExpr  
  : waituntilExpr 'deadline' ['expression'] | waituntilExpr
  ;

waituntilExpr  
  : channelExpr 'waituntil' ['expression'] | channelExpr
  ;

channelExpr  
  : ID '!' expression (',' expression)* ('->')[->>>) eventExpr  | ID '?' (['conditionalOrExpression '])? expression (',' expression)* ('->')[->>>) eventExpr
  //here expression is either a single variable or expression that has no global variables. Optional conditionalOrExpression is the guard condition that stop the channel input event if the condition is false.  | eventExpr
  ;

eventExpr  
  : eventM (block)? ('->)[->>>) eventExpr //-> means urgent event, which takes no time.  | block ('->)[->>>) eventExpr //un-labeled program, which is same as: tau block '-'
  ;

//caseExpr  
  ;
caseExpr: 'case'
    '{'
    caseCondition+ ('default' ':' else=interleaveExpr)? '
    |
    ifExpr
    ;

    caseCondition : (conditionalOrExpression ':' ' interleaveExpr) ;

    ifExpr : atomicIfExpr
    | ifExprs
    ;

    ifExprs : 'if' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}' ('else' ifBlock )?
    | 'ifa' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}' ('else' ifBlock )?
    | 'ifb' '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' '{' interleaveExpr '}'
    ;

    ifBlock : ifExprs
    | '{' interleaveExpr '}'
    ;

    atomicExpr : atom
    | 'atomic' '{' interleaveExpr '}'
    ;

    atom : ID ('( expression (', expression )* )? '))?
    | 'Skip' ('( ')')?
    | 'Stop' ('( ')')?
    | 'Wait' '[ expression (', expression )? ']
    | (' interleaveExpr ')
    ;

    eventM : eventName
    | 'tau' // invisible tau event, which takes no time.
    ;

    eventName : ID (', additiveExpression)*
    ;
3.2.1.4 Verification Options

This section expands the explanation of verification options in Section 2.2.4. According to each type of assertions supported in RTS module, the possible admissible behaviors and the verification engines provided in PAT are listed in the following.

Note: The numbers attached to each option represents the corresponding options under batch mode verification and command line console.

Deadlock-Freeness, Divergence-Freeness, Deterministic, Nonterminating, Safety-LTL properties, Reachability, Refinement, Failure-Refinement, and Failure/Divergence Refinement (for the meaning of the assertions, please refer to Section 3.1.1.7):

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace with zone abstraction (0)
  - First witness trace with digitalization (1)
  - Shortest witness trace with zone abstraction (2)
  - Shortest witness trace with digitalization (3)

Liveness Properties: (for the meaning of admissible behaviors with fairness assumption, please refer to Section 4.1)

- Admissible behaviors:
  - All (0)
  - Non-zeno only (1)
  - Event-level weak fair only (2)
  - Event-level strong fair only (3)
  - Process-level weak fair only (4)
  - Process-level strong fair only (5)
3.2.2.2 Real-Time System Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the RTS module's modeling language using a number of examples.

Fischer's Mutual Exclusion Example

Train Cross Control Example

3.2.2.1 Fischer's Mutual Exclusion Example

This protocol we examined here is a mutual exclusion protocol, first proposed by Fischer in 1985. Instead of using atomic test-and-set instructions or semaphores, as is often done to assure mutual exclusion nowadays, Fischer's protocol only assumes atomic reads and writes to a shared variable (when the first mutual exclusion protocols were developed in the late 1960s all exclusion protocols were of the "shared variable kind", later on researchers have more concentrated on the "semaphore kind" of protocol). Mutual exclusion in Fischer's Protocol is guaranteed by carefully placing bounds on the execution times of the instructions, leading to a protocol which is very simple, and relies heavily on time aspects.

- `#define N 4;`
- `#define Delta 3;`
• `#define Epsilon 4;`
• `#define Idle -1;`

• `var x = Idle;`
• `var counter;`

• `P(i) = ifb(x == Idle) {
  ((update.i{x = i} -> Wait[Epsilon]) within[Delta]);
  if (x == i) {
    cs.i{counter++} -> exit.i{counter--; x=Idle} -> P(i)
  } else {
    P(i)
  };
•
• FischersProtocol = ||| i:{0..N-1}@P(i);
• FischersProtocolDiv = ||| i:{0..N-1}@P(i) \ {update.i, cs.i, exit.i});

• `#assert FischersProtocol deadlockfree;`
• `#assert FischersProtocolDiv divergencefree;`
• `#assert FischersProtocolDiv divergencefree<T>;`

  //mutual exclusion testing
• `#define MutualExclusionFail counter > 1;`
• `#assert FischersProtocol reaches MutualExclusionsFail;`

• //verifying responsiveness by LTL model checking
• `#define request x != Idle;`
• `#define accessCS counter > 0;`
• `#assert FischersProtocol |= []((request -> <>accessCS));`
• `#assert FischersProtocol |= []((update.0 -> <>cs.0));`
3.2.2.2 Train Cross Control Example

In this example, we model a railway control system to automatically control trains passing a critical point such as a bridge. The idea is to use a computer to guide trains from several tracks crossing a single bridge instead of building many bridges. Obviously, a safety-property of such a system is to avoid the situation where more than one train are crossing the bridge at the same time.


- #import "PAT.Lib.Queue";
- #define N 4;
- channel appr 0;
- channel go 0;
- channel leave 0;
- channel stop 0;
- var<Queue> queue;
- //Train model with 'within'
- Train(i) = appr!i -> ((Wait[10, 20]; Cross(i)) [ ] (stop?i -> StopS(i) within[10]));
- Cross(i) = (leave!i -> Train(i)) within[3,5];
- StopS(i) = go?i -> Start(i);
- Start(i) = Wait[7, 15] ; Cross(i);
- Gate = if (queue.Count() ==0) {
• \texttt{atomic\{appr?i -> tau\{queue.Enqueue(i)\} -> Skip\}; Occ}
• } else {

\texttt{(go!queue.First() -> Occ) within[10];}

• });

• Occ = (\texttt{atomic\{leave?[i == queue.First()]i -> tau\{queue.Dequeue()\} -> Skip\}; Gate})
• [ ]
• \texttt{(atomic\{appr?i -> tau\{queue.Enqueue(i)\} -> stop!queue.Last() -> Skip\}; Occ)};
• System = ( \mid \mid x:{0..N-1} \mid \mid Train(x)) \mid \mid \mid \mid Gate;
• #assert System deadlockfree;
• //Whenever a train approaches the bridge, it will eventually cross.
• #assert System \models \emptyset (appr!1 -> <>leave!1);
• //overflow: There can never be N elements in the queue (thus the array will not overflow).
• #define overflow (queue.Count() > N);
• #assert System reaches overflow;

[TOP]

3.3 Probability CSP (PCSP) Module

A probabilistic system is useful in modeling randomized algorithms (e.g., consensus algorithms), unreliable or unpredictable behaviors (e.g., human behaviors in decision making process), etc. Markov Decision Process (MDP) is used to construct this kind of system. In MDPs, nondeterministic and probabilistic choices coexist. Randomized distributed algorithms are typically appropriately modeled by MDPs, as probabilities
affect just a small part of the algorithm and non-determinism is used to model concurrency between processes by means of interleaving. There are several model checkers concentrating on this field (e.g., PRISM, MRMC).

Model checking probabilistic systems against LTL formulae is to compute the probability that the system satisfies formulae. It works by firstly identifying the set of system states which form end components that almost surely satisfies the property. Then it computes the probability of reaching those states from the initial system state. If the property is safety, we show that the problem is reduced to a probabilistic refinement checking problem. If the negation of the property is safety, then the problem is reduced to a probabilistic deadlock-freeness checking problem. In both cases, we can avoid identifying end components or building a Deterministic Rabin Automaton(DRA), which is computational expensive. Otherwise, a DRA of the formula is built and we use it to make a product with the MDP and then calculate the reach-ability to specified end components. In addition, we are working to fulfill the algorithm to PCTL (Probabilistic Computation Tree Logic).

This model has unique characteristic compared with other modules since it supports the probabilistic choices. We have our own syntax based on CSP# to support this. For probabilistic calculation, we use the value iteration method. Now in PAT, the default threshold for stopping the iteration is 10E-6, and the results keep 5 digits after dot. Users could adjust these value in "Options" in GUI.

In GUI, choose Tools -> Options -> Probability CSP module then we could get the following window.
Currently this is still in beta stage. We are actively developing it now. Any suggestion or feedback is extremely welcome.

3.3.1 3.3.1 Language Reference

Probability CSP module is an extension of CSP module with operators for probabilistic behaviors.

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Section 3.3.1.3.

3.1.1.1 Global Definitions (this part is same as CSP module)
3.3.1.1 Probability Processes (this part extends CSP module with probabilistic behaviors)

- pcase

3.3.1.2 Assertions (this part extends CSP module)

- Deadlock free with probability
- Reachability with probability
- LTL with probability

[TOP]

3.3.1.1 Probability Processes

PCSP module supports all process definitions in CSP# Module, and add one kind of process with probabilistic characteristic. This kind of process has a keyword: pcase.

pcase

probabilistic process

P = pcase {
    [prob1] : Q1
    [prob2] : Q2
    ...
    default : Qn
};
It means process P has the probability \( \text{prob1} \) to access Q1 process which can be a normal process or a probabilistic process too; in the same method we define \( \text{prob2} \). At the end, default means P could get Qn with the remaining probability. To make sense, we define that all the transition probabilities' sum should be 1.

In addition, for user's convenience, we support another format of representing probabilities: Weighted pcase. It works as follows.

\[
P = \text{pcase} \{
    \text{weight1} : Q1 \\
    \text{weight2} : Q2 \\
    ... \\
    \text{weightn} : Qn
\};
\]

It means the probability from P to Q1 is \( \text{weight1}/(\text{weight1}+\text{weight2}+...+\text{weightn}) \). We take a simple case for example: the probabilities from P to Q1, Q2 and Q3 are 1/2, 1/3 and 1/6, so it can be represented by the following two methods.

\[
P = \text{pcase} \{
    [0.5] : Q1 \\
    [0.333] : Q2 \\
    \text{default} : Q3
\};
\]

or
Using this kind of process and combined with normal nondeterministic processes in PAT, users could build probabilistic models as they want and check if the model satisfies some specific properties.

3.3.1.2 Assertions

PCSP module supports all assertions in CSP Module, and extends some of them with probability inquiries.

**Deadlock-freeness with probability**

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks the (min/max/both) probability that $P()$ is deadlock-free or not.

```
#assert P() deadlockfree with pmin/pmax/prob;
```

**Reachability with probability**

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks the (min/max/both) probability that $P()$ can reach a state at which some given condition is satisfied.

```
#assert P() reaches cond with prob/pmin/pmax;
```
Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) with probability

In PAT, we support the full set of LTL syntax. Given a process \( P() \), the following assertion asks the (min/max/both) probability that \( P() \) satisfies the LTL formula.

\[
\texttt{#assert P()} \models F \text{ with prob/ } \text{pmin/ } \text{pmax};
\]

where \( F \) is an LTL formula.

Refinement Checking with probability

PAT now also supports refinement checking in PCSP. User could define a non-probabilistic property using CSP# as a specificaiton. Then PAT could calculate the probability that the system behaves under the constraint of the specification.

\[
\texttt{#assert P()} \text{ refines Spec()} \text{ with prob/ } \text{pmin/ } \text{pmax};
\]

where \( \text{Spec()} \) is the user-defined specification.

The precision of the probability can be changed in the system configurations.

[TOP]

3.3.1.3 Grammar Rules

PCSP System is based on CSP Module extended with probability syntax as highlighted below. Other syntax can be found in CSP Grammar Rules.

```
annotation
    : '\#' 'assert' definitionRef
        ( ( '=' ( '(' | ')' | '[' | '(' | '<>' | ID | STRING | '?' | '&\&' | '|' | '-' | '<-' | '<->' | '\\' | '\\' | '.' | INT )+ withClause)
        | 'deadlockfree' withClause
```
'nonterminating' withClause
'deterministic'
'reaches' ID withClauseReach
'refines' definitionRef withClauseReach
'refines' '<F>' definitionRef
'refines' '<FD>' definitionRef
)
;
'
;
withClause
  : 'with' ('pmax' | 'pmin' | 'prob')
;
withClauseReach
  : 'with' ('pmax' | 'pmin' | 'prob' | 'min' '(' expression ')' | 'max' '(' expression '))
;
caseExpr
  : 'case'
    '{' caseCondition+
     ('default' ':' elsec=interleaveExpr)?
    '}'
  | 'pcase'
    '{'
    pcaseCondition+
     ('default' ':' elsec=interleaveExpr)?
    '}'
  | ifExpr
;
caseCondition
  :
    [' floatNumber '] ' :' interleaveExpr
;
floatNumber
  : INT ('.' INT)?
;
[TOP]
### 3.3.1.4 Verification Options

This section expands the explanation of verification options in Section 2.2.4. According to each type of assertions supported in PCSP module, the possible admissible behaviors and the verification engines provided in PAT are listed in the following.

**Note:** The numbers attached to each option represents the corresponding options under [batch mode verification](#) and [command line console](#).

Deadlock-Freeness, Deterministic, Divergence-Freeness, Nonterminating, Reachability and Safety-LTL Properties:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  - Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)

Properties with probability calculation:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - Graph-based probability computation based on value iteration (0)

Refinement:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
  - On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Failure-Refinement:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
• Verification engines:
  o On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
  o On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Failure/Divergence Refinement:

• Admissible behaviors: All (0)
• Verification engines:
  o On-the-fly failures/divergence refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
  o On-the-fly failures/divergence refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Liveness Properties without probability calculation:

• Admissible behaviors:
  o All (0)
  o Event-level weak fair only (1)
  o Event-level strong fair only (2)
  o Process-level weak fair only (3)
  o Process-level strong fair only (4)
  o Global fair only (5)
• Verification engines (same for each admissible behaviors above):
  o Strongly connected components based search (0)

[TOP]

3.3.2 PCSP Module Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the PCSP module's modeling language using a number of classic examples.

PZ86 Mutual Exclusion
Monty Hall Example

3.3.2.1 PZ86 Mutual Exclusion

This example is based on Pnueli and Zuck's work about the \(n\)-process mutual exclusion problem. Mutual exclusion problem means that there are \(n\) processes in a system; however, at each time, at most one process could take control of the critical section. In the following we model this problem in PCSP and use it to check some properties; what is more, we define a safety specification and then use refinement checking to verify if this model satisfies the safety requirement.

First of all, we need to declare how many processes we want in our model and define some global variables to record how many processes are in the same state at the same time.

- \#define N 2;
- var EnterCounter;
- var HighCounter;
- var LowCounter;
- var TieCounter;
- var AdmitCounter;
- varCriticalSectionCounter; // used to record how many processes are in critical section at the same time; should be 0 or 1 all the time.

The following is the system model.

- \(Process0 = \tau \rightarrow Process0 \sqcup \tau\{\text{EnterCounter}++;\} \rightarrow Process2;\)
- \(Process2 = [!(\text{HighCounter}>0||\text{LowCounter}>0||\text{TieCounter}>0)) \sqcup \text{AdmitCounter}>0\] \tau \rightarrow Process3;\)
- \(Process3 = \tau\{\text{EnterCounter}--; \text{HighCounter}++;\} \rightarrow Process4 \sqcup \tau\{\text{EnterCounter}--; \text{LowCounter}++;\} \rightarrow Process7;\)
• Process4 = [HighCounter>1||AdmitCounter>0] tau -> Process5
  ![HighCounter>1||AdmitCounter>0] enterCS {CriticalSectionCounter++;} ->
  Process10;
• Process5 = tau{TieCounter++; HighCounter--;} -> Process6;
• Process6 = ![HighCounter>0||AdmitCounter>0] tau -> Process9;
• Process7 = ![HighCounter>0][TieCounter>0][AdmitCounter>0] tau -> Process8;
• Process8 = tau{LowCounter--; TieCounter++;} -> Process9;
• Process10 = ![LowCounter>0||HighCounter>1||TieCounter>0] tau -> Process12
  ![LowCounter>0||HighCounter>1||TieCounter>0] tau -> Process11;
• Process11 = exitCS{HighCounter--; CriticalSectionCounter--;} -> Process0;
• Process12 = tau{AdmitCounter++; HighCounter--;} -> Process13;
• Process13 = [EnterCounter==0] tau -> Process14;
• Process14 = exitCS{AdmitCounter--; CriticalSectionCounter--;} -> Process0;
• Process9 = pcase{
  0.5 : tau{TieCounter--; HighCounter++;} -> Process4
  default: tau{TieCounter--; LowCounter++;} -> Process7
•
};
• System = ||| {N} @ (Process0);

These processes represent all the situations a process could get into; System means there are N processes in the system now. In order to check if this system is always "safe", we define the following process to indicate at most one process could enter critical section.

• Spec = enterCS -> exitCS -> Spec;
• #assert System refines aSpec with pmax;

Spec means that after every enterCS event, there should be a exitCS following. This could prevent the system from having two or more enterCS happen successively. Then we could check the probability that System could refine Spec and the result indicates the reliability of this system.
Some properties that can be checked are the following:

- `#assert System deadlockfree;`
- `#define all_high (HighCounter==N);`
- `#assert System |= <>all_high & & <>all_low with pmax;`

3.3.2.2 Monty Hall Example

The **Monty Hall problem** is a probability puzzle based on the American television game show. A well-known statement of the problem was published in Marilyn vos Savant's "Ask Marilyn" column in Parade magazine in 1990:

Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say No. 1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say No. 3, which has a goat. He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No. 2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?

Following is the model:

- `enum{Door1, Door2, Door3};`
- `var car = -1;`
- `var guess = -1;`
- `var goat = -1;`
- `var final = false;`
- `#define goal guess == car & & final;`

Here we first define 3 doors; and `car, guess, goat, final` are variables to record the positions of car or goats. Our goal now is finally the guest will get the car.
The whole game is divided into several parts: firstly we should put the car behind a random door; and then the guest could have his own guess; then host will show the guest a goat; finally, the guest will decide if he will take the "switch" offer from the host.

According to if the guest will take the server, we have two systems as follows.

- **Sys_Take_Offer** = PlaceCar; Guest; Goat; TakeOffer;
- **Sys_Not_Take_Offer** = PlaceCar; Guest; Goat; NotTakeOffer;

Finally, we have the assertion to check the probability this guest could get the car:

- #assert Sys_Take_Offer reaches goal with prob;
- #assert Sys_Not_Take_Offer reaches goal with prob;
3.4 Probability RTS (PRTS) Module

Design and development of control software for safety-critical systems are notoriously difficult problems. Real-life systems often depend on quantitative timing. Furthermore, they may be required to satisfy requirements in an unreliable environment (e.g., unexpected user behaviors, communication failure). The combination of real-time and probability in complex hierarchical systems presents a unique challenge to system verification. Existing model checkers all have their limitation in this kind of system: UPPAAL is useful in real-time verification but does not support probabilistic choices; PRISM and MRMC lack real-time features although they could handle probabilistic models.

Since PAT could support real-time system models and PCSP models, we combine these two together to generate a new module that supports both timed features and probabilistic characteristics which is named as PRTS. This module inherits almost all the syntax and semantics from RTS and PCSP; what is more, it could verify all kinds of properties of those two moduls such as LTL checking, refinement checking, and deadlock checking.

PRTS could verify probabilistic, real-time, hierarchical systems, and its powerful expressiveness guarantees that many real-life systems could be handled by PAT in compact models. What is more, similar to RTS module, zone abstraction is used in PRTS to make sure that all the models could be transferred to finite-state Markov Decision Processes so that they are model checkable with our probabilistic algorithms. Considering the complex structure of this module, we are now developing it. So any feedback is warmly welcome.
Probabilistic RTS module is an combination of RTS module and PCSP module.

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Section 3.4.1.3.

3.1.1.1 Global Definitions (this part is same as CSP module)

3.4.1.1 Process Definitions (this part combines PCSP and RTS module)

3.4.1.2 Assertions (this part combines PCSP and RTS module)

3.4.1.1 PRTS Processes

Since PRTS is a combination of PCSP and RTS, then it inherits all the syntax of these two modules. Besides all the process definitions in CSP#, PRTS also has keywords such as pcase, Wait, within and so on. Although no new keyword is introduced, the combination of process definitions from different modules makes the model more meaningful. Following is a small example:

\[
P = (\text{pcase } \\
\quad [\text{prob1}] : \text{Wait}[d1]; Q1 \\
\quad [\text{prob2}] : (Q2)\text{within}[d2] \\
\quad ... \\
\quad \text{default} : Qn \text{ interrupt}[dn] Qn+1 \\
\quad )))\text{deadline}[d]; //note: here we can also use weighted pcase for convenience, just as in PCSP.
\]
This process means process $P$ should finish in $d$ time units (deadline$[d]$); and meanwhile, according to the transition probability $P$ has probabilistic choices to different processes such as $\text{Wait}[d1]$; Q1 or (Q2) within$[d2]$. Notice that $Qi$ could also have real-time and probabilistic transition itself.

**Remark:** The following language constructs are also disallowed in probabilistic real-time system model. This is the same as RTS module because these two commands will generate confictions with implicit clocks we use.

$$[b]P$$

$$\text{ifa} \ (b) \ \{P\} \ \text{else} \ \{Q\}$$

**TOP**

### 3.4.1.2 Assertions

PRTS supports all assertions in CSP, PCSP and RTS modules. The most useful assertions include deadlock checking, reachability checking, LTL checking and refinement checking (both probabilistic refinement and timed refinement). Meanwhile, we are developing more complicated properties which are unique for PRTS.

**Deadlock-freeness (with probability)**

Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks if $P()$ is deadlock-free or not ($P()$ is deadlock-free with max/min/both probability).

$$\text{#assert } P()\ \text{deadlockfree } (\text{with pmin/pmax/prob});$$

**Reachability (with probability)**
Given $P()$ as a process, the following assertion asks if $P()$ can reach a state at which some given condition is satisfied ($P()$ can reach a state with max/min/both probability).

$$\textit{#assert } P() \textit{ reaches } \textit{cond } (\textit{with pmin/ pmax/ prob});$$

Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) \textit{(with probability)}

In PAT, we support the full set of LTL syntax. Given a process $P()$, the following assertion asks whether $P()$ satisfies the LTL formula ($P()$ can satisfy an LTL formula with max/min/both probability).

$$\textit{#assert } P() \models F \ (\textit{with pmin/ pmax/ prob});$$

where $F$ is an LTL formula.

Refinement Checking \textit{(with probability)}

PAT now also supports refinement checking in PRTS. User could define a non-probabilistic property using CSP# as a specificaiton. Then PAT could tell users if the system behaves under the constraint of the specification (the system behaves under the constraint of the specification with max/min/both probability).

$$\textit{#assert } \textit{Implementation()} \textit{ refines } \textit{Spec()} \ (\textit{with prob/ pmin/ pmax});$$

where Spec() is the user-defined specification.

Timed Refinement Checking

Similarly to RTS module, PRTS also supports timed refinement checking. This property allows user to define the specification which has real-time features and check if the implementation could work under the constraint of timed specification:

$$\textit{#assert } \textit{Implementation()} \textit{ refines} <T> \textit{TimedSpec()} ;$$

where TimedSpec() is the user-defined timed specification.
Timed Refinement Checking with probability (In Progress)

We are working to specify some unique properties in PRTS which could not be handled by other modules. Timed probabilistic refinement checking allows users to check the max/min/both probability with which implementation could work under the constraint of timed specification.

\[
\texttt{#assert Implementation() refines}<T>\texttt{TimedSpec() with prob/pmin/pmax;}
\]

where Spec() is the user-defined specification.

These properties a just a part of that PRTS could support; and we are exploring more systems to find more and more suitable properties that could be verified in PRTS module.

---

3.4.1.3 Grammar Rules

PCSP System is based on CSP Module extended with probability syntax as highlighted below. Other syntax can be found in CSP Grammar Rules.

```
assertion :
   '#' 'assert' definitionRef
   
   ( ( '=' ( '(' | ')'] | '[' | '<>' | (ID - 'X') | STRING | '!' | '?' | '&&' | '||' | '-' | '<' | '/' | '\' | 'W' | ':' | INT )+ withClause)
   | 'deadlockfree' withClause
   | 'nonterminating' withClause
   | 'deterministic'
```

---
| 'reaches' ID withClauseReach
| 'refines' definitionRef withClause
| 'refines' '<F>' definitionRef
| 'refines' '<FD>' definitionRef
| 'refines' '<T>' definitionRef

withClause
  : 'with' ('pmax' | 'pmin' | 'prob')
    ;

withClauseReach
  : 'with' ('pmax' | 'pmin' | 'prob' | 'min' '(' expression ')' | 'max' '(' expression ')')
    ;
caseExpr
  : 'case'
    '{' caseCondition+
      ('default' ':' elsec=interleaveExpr)?
    '}'
  | 'pcase'
    '{'
      pcaseCondition+
      ('default' ':' elsec=interleaveExpr)?
    '}'
  | ifExpr
    ;

pcaseCondition
  :'[' floatNumber ']' ':' interleaveExpr
    ;

floatNumber
  : INT ('.' INT)?
    ;
timeoutExpr
  : withinExpr ('timeout'^ '[!' expression ']')! withinExpr)*
    ;
3.4.2 3.4.2 PRTS Module Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the PRTS module's modeling language using a real life example.

Multi-lifts System Example

3.4.2.1 Multi-lifts System Example

Muti-lift systems heavily rely on control software. Even though they have been used as a typical case study in software engineering research communities, the combination of real-time and probability have never been considered before. A multi-lift system consists of many components, e.g., multiple lifts, floors, internal and external button panels, etc. It is complex in control logic as behavior of different components must be coordinated through a software controller. The system has non-trivial data components and data operations, e.g., maintaining queues for internal and external requests. It depends on quantitative timing, e.g., a lift travels/reacts at limited speed.
We model a lift system check what the probability is for a user is "ignored" by the system, which means a user has requested to travel in certain direction, but a lift passes by, traveling in the same direction without letting the user in. Following is the model.

- `#import "PAT.Lib.Lift";`
- `#define NoOfFloors 2;`
- `#define NoOfLifts 2;`
- `var< LiftControl> ctrl = new LiftControl(NoOfFloors, NoOfLifts);`
- `var passby = 0;`

We define a external C# library which includes all the functions controlling the lift system. Passby records if a user is be ignored by a lift. 0 means no and 1 means yes.

```
• aSystem = (||| x:{0..NoOfLifts-1} @ Lift(x, 0, 1)) ||| Requests();
• Requests() = Request();Request();

• Request() = pcase {
  1: extreq.0.1{ctrl.AssignExternalRequest(0,1)} -> Skip
  1 : intreq.0.0.1{ctrl.AddInternalRequest(0,0)} -> Skip
  1: intreq.1.0.1{ctrl.AddInternalRequest(1,0)} -> Skip
  1 : extreq.1.0{ctrl.AssignExternalRequest(1,0)} -> Skip
  1 : intreq.0.1.1{ctrl.AddInternalRequest(0,1)} -> Skip
  1 : intreq.1.1.1{ctrl.AddInternalRequest(1,1)} -> Skip
} within[1];
```

```
• Lift(i, level, direction) = case {
  ctrl.isToOpenDoor(i, level) == 1 :
  (serve.level.direction{ctrl.ClearRequests(i, level, direction)} -> Lift(i, level, direction))
  ctrl.KeepMoving(i, level, direction) == 1 :
  (reach.level+direction.direction{passby = ctrl.UpdateLiftStatus(i, level, direction)})
```
\[ \text{Lift}(i, \text{level+direction}, \text{direction}) \]
\[ \text{ctrl.HasAssignment}(i) == 1 : \text{changedirection}.i\{\text{ctrl.ChangeDirection}(i)\} \rightarrow \]
\[ \text{Lift}(i, \text{level}, -1*\text{direction}) \]
\[ \text{default : idle}.i \rightarrow \text{Lift}(i, \text{level}, \text{direction}) \]
\} \text{ within}[2];

Finally we define the goal we need.

- \#define goal passby == 1;
- \#assert aSystem reaches goal with prob;

[TOP]

3.5 3.5 Labeled Transition System (LTS) Module

Our motive of Labeled Transition System (LTS) module is to provide a visual environment for users to do model checking. Beside using CSP to define a process, users can represent the process by drawing it as a Finite State Machine. Moreover, in this module, we also combine the efficiency of BDD in Symbolic model checking. LTS module uses the CUDD library to model the system and run verification.
3.5.1 Language Reference

Most of the syntax in our module follow the language used in the CSP module. To mode a system, users first define the primitive systems by drawing them as Finite State Machines. Then based on these primitive components, users can use CSP syntax to describe more complex system.
The language syntax structures are listed as follows.

- **3.5.1.1 Global Definitions**
- **3.5.1.2 Primitive Process Definitions**
  - **Drawing**
    - Navigation Tree
    - Canvas
  - **State**
  - **Transition**
- **3.5.1.2 Process Definitions**

### 3.5.1.1 3.5.1.1 Global Definitions

**Constants**

A global constant is defined using the following syntax,

```c
#define max 5;
```

`#define` is a keyword used for multiple purposes. Here it defines a global constant named `max`, which has the value 5. The semi-colon marks the end of the 'sentence'.

Note: the constant value can only be integer value (both positive and negative) and Boolean value (`true` or `false`).

Constant enumeration can be defined using keyword `enum`. For example, `enum {red, blue, green}`; is the syntactic sugar for the following:

- `#define red 0;`
- `#define blue 1;`
- `#define green 2;`
Variables/arrays

A global variable is defined using the following syntax,

```plaintext
var knight = 0;
```

where `var` is a key word for defining a variable and `knight` is the variable name. Initially, `knight` has the value 0. Semi-colon is used to mark the end of the 'sentence' as above. We remark the input language of PAT is weakly typed and therefore no typing information is required when declaring a variable. Cast between incompatible types may result in a run-time exception.

A fixed-size array may be defined as follows,

```plaintext
var board = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];
```

where `board` is the array name and its initial value is specified as the sequence, e.g., `board[0] = 3`. The following defines an array of size 3.

```plaintext
var leader[3];
```

All elements in the array are initialized to be 0.

**Note:** Currently, channel array is not supported in this module.

**Note for multi-dimensional array:** PAT supports multi-dimensional arrays by converting them into one dimensional arrays. You can declare and use multi-dimensional arrays as follows (Note that here, the N should be a constant). The only restriction is that you can not assign multi-dimensional array constant to multi-dimensional arrays variables. To initialize a multi-dimensional array, you need to do it explicitly in some events.

- ```plaintext
    var matrix[3*N][10];
  ```
Note: To assign values to specific elements in an array, you can use event prefix. For example:

\[ P() = a \{ \text{matrix}[1][9] = 0 \} \rightarrow \text{Skip}; \]

**Variable range specification**: users can provide the range of the variables/arrays explicitly by giving lower bound or upper bound or both. In this way, the model checkers and simulator can report the out-of-range violation of the variable values to help users to monitor the variable values. The syntax of specifying range values are demonstrated as follows.

- `var knight : \{0..\} = 0;`
- `var board : \{0..10\} = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];`
- `var leader[N] : \{..N-1\};` //where N is a constant defined.

**Array Initialization**: To ease the modeling, PAT supports fast array initialization using following syntax.

- `#define N 2;`
- `var array = [1(2), 3..6, 7(N*2), 12..10];`
- `//the above is same as the following`
- `var array = [1, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7, 7, 7, 12, 11, 10];`

In the above syntax, 1(2) and 7(N*2) allow user to quickly create an array with same initial values. 3..6 and 12..10 allow user to write quick increasing and decreasing loop to initialize the array.

**Random Initialization**: You may want to let the program to choose a random value for a variable or elements in an array. In this case, you may want to try WildConstant Symbol `*`.

- `var knight : \{0..10\} = *;`
- `var board : \{0..10\} = *;`
in the above syntax, the variable knight and all elements in the array board will be initialized with a random value in the range of 0 to 10.

**Note:** This feature can only be used for symbolic model checking using BDD. Simulating models with WildConstant symbol will cause exception. In the verification window, explicit model checking algorithms will not be available for models with WildConstant symbol.

**Channels**

In PAT, process may communicate through message passing on channels. A channel is declared as follows,

```plaintext
channel c 5;
```

where `channel` is a key word for declaring channels only, `c` is the channel name and `5` is the channel buffer size; Channel buffer size must be greater or equal to 0. Notice that a channel with buffer size 0 sends/receives messages synchronously. This is used to model pair-wise synchronization, which involves two parties. Barrier-synchronization, which involves multiple parties, is supported by following CSP’s approach, i.e., alphabetized parallel composition.

**Propositions**

In addition, the key word `#define` may be used to define propositions. For instance,

```
#define goal x == 0;
```

where `goal` is the name of the proposition and `x == 0` is what goal means. A proposition name is used in the same way as global constant is used. For instance, given the above definition, we may write the following,

```
if (goal) { P } else { Q };
```
which means if the value of $x$ is 0 then do $P$ else do $Q$. We remark that propositions are the basic elements of LTL formulae.

3.5.1.2 Primitive Process Definitions

LTS module provides an easy mean to create processes by drawing the operation of the process. Each process is an automaton where a state is a snapshot of the process and a transition is used to describe how the state of the process changes as the result of some action of the process. A transition includes three parts. First, the Event is the name of the action making the process to change. Second, the Guard is the condition of the action to happen. And last is the Program. Program is the description of the action. It defines what the new state of the process from the current state if this action is triggered. In this manual we will use the Transition and Link interchangeably. The Transition is actually represented a real link in the canvas.

3.5.1.2.1 Drawing

The system editor has two parts Navigation Tree and Canvas. Navigation Tree is used to access the editor of the system declaration and processes. The canvas is used to edit the declaration and processes.

3.5.1.2.1.1 Navigation Tree

The Navigation Tree is shown in the left panel of the system editor. It is used for accessing the global definition and process definitions. A node in the tree can be double clicked to view and edit.
The root of the navigation tree is named LTS Model. The sub node Declarations is used for declarations of global variables, systems, and assertions. The next sub node is Processes. It is the collection of processes which can be included to the certain system. Please refer to the Global Definition to know how to define a system.

There are 3 item in the Navigation Tree menu. Just right click to access the menu.
1. Add process: Right click on sub node Processes to add a new process
2. Delete: Right click on a node of a process to delete it.
3. Process Detail: Right click on a node of a process to edit the name, and parameter of that process.
3.5.1.2.1.2 Canvas

The right panel of the system editor is used for drawing the process. There are currently four drawing functions named Add New State, Delete, Add Link, Export Drawing as Bitmap

1. Add New State: This tool is used to create a new state. Choose this tool and click anywhere in the canvas. Beside this way, a new state can be added from
the context menu in the canvas by right click in the canvas and choose New State.

2. Delete 
   Selecting this tool will delete all the currently selected items including states, links, nails.

3. Add Link : This tool is used to create a new link connecting two states. Choose this tool first and then choose two states to be connected. Between choosing two states, if you click anywhere in the canvas, a new nail will be automatically added to the screen.

4. Export Drawing as Bitmap : Export the current canvas to a bitmap. However, the program does not accept that bitmap as an input of the program.

There are some useful hotkeys supported in the LTS canvas:

1. Ctrl-Z: Undo to the last state before your change.
2. Ctrl-Y: Redo to the last Undo
3. Delete: Delete the selected items in the canvas.

For users with a mouse, the left mouse is used to select an item and the right mouse is used to access the item's context menu. User can select multiple item by dragging the mouse pointer to create a selection around the outside of all the items to be included.
3.5.1.2.2 State

A state is a snapshot of the process. A state has two properties.

- **Name**: is the name of the state. It is used to distinguish states. Two states having the same name are actually a state representing the same snapshot of the process.
- **Initial**: is a boolean property of state. A state is initial then it is the starting point of the process.

There are some actions which can do with State
- Create State: Select the Add New State function and click anywhere in the canvas to create new state. Another way is to create new state from the canvas's context menu by making right click on the canvas and selecting New State.
- Delete State: There are also two ways to delete a state. First is select the state then select the Delete function. Second is delete the state from that state's context menu.
- Move State: Select the state then drag the mouse to the place you want. Then the state will be moved to that position.
- Edit Name: Double click on the state to open the State Editing Form dialog. There you can edit the state's name.
Set Initial: Select the initial state then set that property from the state's context menu.

3.5.1.2.3 Transition

A transition is used to describe how the state of the process changes as the result of some action of the process. It is composed of three parts.

- Select is used to bind a variable nondeterministically to a value in a range. The format of this declaration is "x:{M..N}". This will non-deterministically bind x to an integer in the range M to N. The Select is useful to initialize variables with a random value.
- Event is the name of the action making the process to change.
- Guard, a boolean expression, is the condition of the action to happen.
- Program is the description of the action. It defines what the new state of the process from the current state if this action is triggered. It is a sequence of command and may contain while-loops, if-then-else.
The transition label is represented as the below format: [guard]event{program}. In the above picture, the first link in red color, "[Knight == 0 && Lady == 0] go_knight_lady {Knight = 1; Lady= 1; time = time+LADY;}", means that the process can move from state North to state South if the guard "Knight == 0 && Lady == 0" is satisfied. Then after this move, the process will change to new state where Knight = 1, Lady = 1 and time' = time + LADY (Knight, Lady, time', time are variables, LADY is constant and time', time are the value of time variable after and before the move respectively.

There are some action which can do with the Transition

- Create Transition: Select the Add Link function then select the first state and the second state. Between selections of the two states, you can click in the canvas to
create a new Nail. Nail is a small dot in yellow color. It is used to divide the transition in segments.

- **Delete Transition**: Select the link then click the Delete function or select Delete function from that link's context menu.
- **Create Nail**: Right click on the link and select New Nail.
- **Delete Nail**: Select the Nail then select the delete function from the toolbar or its context menu.
- **Move Nail**: Select the Nail and drag the nail to the desired position.

3.5.1.3 Process Definitions

A process is defined as an equation in the following syntax,

\[ P() = \text{Exp}; \]

where \( P \) is the process name, and \( \text{Exp} \) is a process expression. The process expression determines the computational logic of the process. To define \( \text{Exp} \), please refer to 3.1.1.2 Process Definitions of CSP module. There is an important constraint in this declaration is that the \( \text{Exp} \) can only contains primitive processes which are defined by drawing it as a Finite State Machine (FSM). Process referencing does not allow recursion. In other word, the process \( P \) could not call itself or use another process definition which is not a primitive process. To define a primitive process, please refer to 3.5.1.2 Primitive Process Definitions.

For example, a system \( \text{Sys} \) can be defined in such following ways:

\[
\text{System} = e1 ? P1() [] e2 ? P2();
\]

\[
\text{System} = P3(1) || P4();
\]

where \( P1(), P2(), P3(i), P4() \) are primitive processes defined in the Drawing part.
3.5.1.4 Verification Options

This section expands the explanation of verification options in Section 2.2.4. According to each type of assertions supported in LTS module, the possible admissible behaviors and the verification engines provided in PAT are referred to Section 3.1.1.4.7.

Note: The numbers attached to each option represents the corresponding options under batch mode verification and command line console.

Deadlock-Freeness and Nonterminating:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  - Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward Search Strategy (2)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Backward Search Strategy (3)
  - Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward-Backward Search Strategy (4)

Divergence-Freeness and Deterministic:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
- Verification engines:
  - First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  - Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)

Reachability:

- Admissible behaviors: All (0)
Verification engines:
  o First witness trace using Depth First Search (0)
  o Shortest witness trace using Breadth First Search (1)
  o Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward Search Strategy (2)
  o Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Backward Search Strategy (3)
  o Symbolic Model Checking using BDD with Forward-Backward Search Strategy (4)

Refinement:

  • Admissible behaviors: All (0)
  • Verification engines:
    o On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
    o On-the-fly trace refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Failure-Refinement:

  • Admissible behaviors: All (0)
  • Verification engines:
    o On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
    o On-the-fly failure refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Failure/Divergence Refinement:

  • Admissible behaviors: All (0)
  • Verification engines:
    o On-the-fly failures/divergence refinement checking using Depth First Search (0)
    o On-the-fly failures/divergence refinement checking using Breadth First Search (1)

Safety-LTL Properties:
3.5.2 LTS Module Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the LTS module's modeling language with the Bridge Crossing Example.

3.5.2.1 Bridge Crossing Example

In this tutorial, we model and solve (by reachability analysis) a classic puzzle, known as bridge crossing puzzle using PAT. The following is the puzzle description.
All four people start out on the southern side of the bridge, namely the King, Queen, a young Lady and a Knight. The goal is for everyone to arrive at the castle - the north of the bridge, before the time runs out. The bridge can hold at most two people at a time and they must be carrying the torch when crossing the bridge. The King needs 5 minutes to cross, the Queen 10 minutes, the Lady 2 minutes and the Knight 1 minute. The question is given a specific amount of time, whether all people can cross the bridge in time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The</th>
<th>partial declaration</th>
<th>part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/////The Model /////</td>
<td>Max</td>
<td>17;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>KNIGHT</td>
<td>1;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>LADY</td>
<td>2;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>KING</td>
<td>5;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define</td>
<td>QUEEN</td>
<td>10;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>var</th>
<th>Knight: {0..1} = 0;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>var</td>
<td>Lady: {0..1} = 0;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var</td>
<td>King: {0..1} = 0;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var</td>
<td>Queen: {0..1} = 0;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var</td>
<td>time: {0..17} = 0;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The declaration includes some definitions of the constants in this model, where #define is a reserved keyword for defining a synonymy for a (integer or Boolean) constant or a proposition. Max represents the maximum number of time units. KNIGHT stands for the number of time units the knight needs. Similarly, we define the rest ones. We remark the users shall use constants (instead of variables) whenever possible. Because constants never change, during verification they are not excluded from the system state information, and hence, using constants instead of variables save memory and maybe time also.
The above also defines the variables in the system, where var is a reserved keyword for introducing variables or arrays. Notice that PAT has a weak type system. Variable Knight is used to model whether the knight is at the southern side of the bridge or the northern side. It is of value 0 if the knight hasn't crossed the bridge, otherwise 1. Similarly, we define the rest. Variable time records the number of time units spent by far. The default value is 0. The two numbers between "{}" is the lower bound and upper bound values of the variable. When user selectd the BDD selection in the Verification Dialog, these numbers are very helpful to the program to calculate the number of bits needed to represent that variable.

The process P1 has two states North and South. Each transition from North to South corresponds the case when someone go from North to South and vice versa. The label of the transition is in the following form:

[guard]event{program}

Informally, it means that if the guard is true, then the action can occur, i.e., the program attached with the action can be executed. Notice that program here could contain while-loops, if-then-else, etc. For instance, at the first line, the guard states that
the Knight and the Lady are both at the southern side of the bridge. If this is true, then
the action go_knight_lady can occur, which in terms means that the variable Knight and
Lady are set to be 1 (meaning they have crossed the bridge) and time is incremented by
the number of time units needed by the lady. After that, the system behaves as process
North because the torch must come back from North to South. Similarly, we can
enumerate all possible ways of crossing the bridge, e.g., the knight goes together with
the king or queen, the king goes with the lady or queen, and the queen goes with the
lady.

Having modeled all possible behaviors of the systems as the above processes, we
are now ready to reason about the system.

The rest of the declaration part
System = P1();
#define goal (Knight==1 && Lady==1 && King==1 && Queen==1 && time <= Max);
#assert System reaches goal;

The question we are interested is whether it is feasible to cross the bridge within
Max number of time unit. The above shows one of the questions. The first line defines
that the system only includes the process P1. The second line defines a proposition
named goal, which states that the time taken should be not greater than Max and all
people should be on the northern side of the bridge. The third line is the assertion,
where #assert is a reserved keyword. 'reaches' is also a keyword. Informally, the
assertion says that starting from process South() (because the state South is the initial
state of the process P1), we will reach a state at which the proposition goal is true.

[TOP]

3.6 Timed Automata (TA) Module

Our motivation of Timed Automata (TA) module is to provide a visual environment
for users to do model checking. It's based on the theory of timed automata. A timed
automaton is a finite-state machine extended with clock variables. All the clocks progress synchronously. In TA module, a system is modeled as a network of several timed automata interleaving with each other. A state of the system is defined by the locations of all automata, the clock constraints, and the values of the global variables. Every automaton may fire an edge (sometimes misleadingly called a transition) separately or synchronise with another automaton, which leads to a new state.

3.6.1 3.6.1 Language Reference

With a visual environment to model the system, the input language of the LTS module is simpler than other modules. It has features of programming language like declarations, assignments, if-then-else, while loop and so on.

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Grammar Rules.

- 3.6.1.1 Declarations
- 3.6.1.2 Process Definitions
  - Drawing
    - Navigation Tree
    - Canvas
  - State
  - Transition
- 3.6.1.3 Grammar Rules

3.6.1.1 3.6.1.1 Declarations

The declaration of TA module consists of three parts: Global definition, System definitions and Assertion.
Global Definition

Model Name

First of all, you can give a name for your model using the following syntax in the first line of your model. The model name is used internally as an ID for simulator to find the correct drawing pictures, if any. It is optional.

 //@@Model Name@@

Constants

A global constant is defined using the following syntax,

```c
#define max 5;
```

`#define` is a keyword used for multiple purposes. Here it defines a global constant named `max`, which has the value 5. The semi-colon marks the end of the 'sentence'.

Note: the constant value can only be integer value (both positive and negative) and Boolean value (`true` or `false`).

Constant enumeration can be defined using keyword `enum`. For example, `enum {red, blue, green};` is the syntactic sugar for the following:

- `#define red 0;`
- `#define blue 1;`
- `#define green 2;`

Variables/arrays

A global variable is defined using the following syntax,

```c
var knight = 0;
```
where `var` is a key word for defining a variable and `knight` is the variable name. Initially, `knight` has the value 0. Semi-colon is used to mark the end of the 'sentence' as above. We remark the input language of PAT is weakly typed and therefore no typing information is required when declaring a variable. Cast between incompatible types may result in a run-time exception. A fixed-size array may be defined as follows,

```
var board = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];
```

where `board` is the array name and its initial value is specified as the sequence, e.g., `board[0] = 3`. The following defines an array of size 3.

```
var leader[3];
```

All elements in the array are initialized to be 0.

**Note for multi-dimensional array:** PAT supports multi-dimensional arrays by converting them into one dimensional array. You can declare and use multi-dimensional arrays as follows. The only restriction is that you cannot assign multi-dimensional array constant to multi-dimensional arrays variables. To initialize a multi-dimensional array, you need to do it explicitly in some events.

- `var matrix[3*N][10];`
- `var matrix[1][6] = 3;`

**Variable range specification:** users can provide the range of the variables/arrays explicitly by giving lower bound or upper bound or both. In this way, the model checkers and simulator can report the out-of-range violation of the variable values to help users to monitor the variable values. The syntax of specifying range values are demonstrated as follows.

- `var knight : {0..} = 0;`
- `var board : {0..10} = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];`
- `var leader[N] : {..N-1}; //where N is a constant defined.`
**Array Initialization:** To ease the modeling, PAT supports fast array initialization using following syntax.

- `#define N 2;`
- `var array = [1(2), 3..6, 7(N*2), 12..10];`
- `//the above is same as the following`
- `var array = [1, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7, 7, 7, 12, 11, 10];`

In the above syntax, 1(2) and 7(N*2) allow user to quickly create an array with same initial values. 3..6 and 12..10 allow user to write quick increasing and decreasing loop to initialize the array.

**User defined type:** To ease the modeling, PAT allows users to define any data structures and use them in PAT models. The following shows the syntax.

- `var <Type> x;` //default constructor of Type class will be called.
- `var <Type> x = new Type(1, 2);` //constructor with two int parameters will be called.

Hidden variable: To simplify the model, PAT introduces the hidden variables which can be used as normal variables. The only difference is that hidden variable is a kind of secondary variable, which is not included in the state details. The idea of secondary is to use redundant.

- `var a; var b;`
- `hvar difference;` //secondary variable to store the difference between a and b.

**Channels**

In TA module, process can synchronize over channel. A normal channel is declared as follows,

```
channel c;
```
where `channel` is a key word for declaring channels only, `c` is the channel name, the buffer size of the channel is 1.

```c
channel c[5];
```

where `c` is an array of channels, with the array size is 5. The concrete channel depends on the current valuation which is the value of the array index.

**Propositions**

In addition, the key word `#define` may be used to define propositions. For instance,

```c
#define goal x == 0;
```

where `goal` is the name of the proposition and `x == 0` is what `goal` means. A proposition name is used in the same way as global constant is used. For instance, given the above definition, we may write the following,

```c
if (goal) { P } else { Q };
```

which means if the value of `x` is 0 then do `P` else do `Q`. We remark that propositions are the basic elements of LTL formulae.

**Clocks**

A clock may be a variable or an array. All the clocks progress synchronously and real-time constraints are captured by explicitly setting/resetting clock variables. A clock may be defined as follows:

- `clock x; //clock is a variable.`
- `clock y[3]; //clock is an array.`

**System Definition**

A system is defined as an equation in the following syntax,
\[ P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \text{Exp}; \]

where \( P \) is the system name, \( x_1, ..., x_n \) is an optional list of system parameters and \( \text{Exp} \) is a process expression which is a process defined as a timed automaton or the interleaving processes that are defined as timed automata. The process expression determines the computational logic of the system. A system without parameters is written either as \( P() \) or \( P \).

For example, a system \( \text{Sys} \) can be defined in such following ways:

- \( \text{Sys} = P; \) //\( P \) is a defined processes without parameters.
- \( \text{Sys} = Q(1); \) //\( Q \) is a defined processes with a parameter.
- \( \text{Sys} = P() ||| Q(0); \) //Two interleaving processes.

where \( ||| \) denotes interleaving. Both \( P \) and \( Q \) may perform their local actions without referring to each other. Notice that \( P \) and \( Q \) can still communicate via shared variables or channels. The generalized form of interleaving is written as,

\[ ||| x:\{0..n\} @ P(x); \]

**Assertions**

TA module supports all assertions such as deadlock freeness, reachability, the full set of Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) in CSP Module.

[TOP]

### 3.6.1.2 Process Definitions

In TA module, a system is modeled as a network of several processes interleaving with each other.
It provides an easy way to create a process by drawing the operations of the process. Each process is an automaton where a location is a snapshot of the process and an edge is used to describe a transition from one location to another.

An edge includes five parts.

First, the Event is the name of the action making the process to change.

Second, the Clock Guard is the timed constraint of transition execution.

Third, the Transition Guard is the condition of the action to happen.

Next is the Program which is the description of the action. It defines what the new state of the process from the current state is if this action is triggered.

Finally, Reset Clocks is set the clock to zero. In this manual we will use the Transition and Link interchangeably. The Transition is actually represented a real link in the canvas.

3.6.1.2.1 Drawing

The system editor has two parts Navigation Tree and Canvas. Navigation Tree is used to access the editor of the system declarations and processes. The canvas is used to edit the processes.

3.6.1.2.1.1 Navigation Tree

The Navigation Tree is shown in the left panel of the system editor. It is used for accessing the global definition and process definitions. A node in the tree can be double clicked to view and edit.
The root of the navigation tree is named TA Model. The sub node Declaration is used for declarations of global variables, systems, and assertions. The next sub node is Processes. It is the collection of processes which can be included to the certain system. Please refer to the Global Definition to know how to define a system.

There are 3 items in the Navigation Tree menu. Just right click to access the menu.
1. Add Process: Right click on sub node Processes to add a new process.
2. Delete Process: Right click on a node of a process to delete it.
3. Process Details: Right click on a node of a process to edit the name, and parameter of that process.
3.6.1.2.1.2 Canvas

The right panel of the system editor is used for drawing the process. There are currently four drawing functions named **Add New State**, **Delete**, **Add Link**, **Export Drawing as Bitmap**.

1. **Add New State**: This button is used to create a new state. Choose this button and click anywhere in the canvas. Beside this way, a new state can be added from the context menu in the canvas by right click in the canvas and choose New State.

2. **Delete**: Selecting this button will delete all the currently selected items including states, links, nails.

3. **Add Link**: This tool is used to create a new link connecting two states. Choose this tool first and then choose two states to be connected. Between choosing two states, if you click anywhere in the canvas, a new nail will be automatically added to the screen.

4. **Export Drawing as Bitmap**: Export the current canvas to a bitmap. However, the program does not accept that bitmap as an input of the program.

There are some useful hotkeys supported in the TA canvas:

1. **Ctrl-Z**: Undo to the last state before your change.
2. **Ctrl-Y**: Redo to the last Undo
3. **Delete**: Delete the selected items in the canvas.

For users with a mouse, the left mouse is used to select an item and the right mouse is used to access the item's context menu. User can select multiple items by dragging the mouse pointer to create a selection around the outside of all the items to be included.
3.6.1.2.2 State

A state is a snapshot of the process. A state has four properties.

- **Name**: the name of the state. It is used to distinguish states. Two states having the same name are actually a state representing the same snapshot of the process.
- **Initial**: a boolean property of state. A state is initial then it is the starting point of the process.
- **Clock Invariant**: an expression that is a conjunction of conditions of the form $x < e$ or $x \leq e$ where $x$ is a clock.
reference and \( e \) evaluates to an integer. When the clock value violates the invariant, the next transition must involve an edge from this state.

- **Urgent**: a boolean property of state. Urgent state freezes time; *i.e.* time is not allowed to pass when a process is in an urgent state.
- **Commited**: a boolean property of state. Commited state freezes time. Furthermore, if any process is in a committed state, the next transition must involve an edge from one of the committed states.

There are **some actions** which can do with State:

- **Create State**: Select the Add New State function and click anywhere in the canvas to create new state. Another way is to create new state from the canvas's context menu by making right click on the canvas and selecting New State.
- **Delete State:** There are also two ways to delete a state. First is select the state then select the Delete function. Second is delete the state from that state's context menu.

- **Move State:** Select the state then drag the mouse to the place you want. Then the state will be moved to that position.

- **Edit Name:** Double click on the state to open the State Editing Form dialog. There you can edit the state's name.

- **Edit Clock Invariant:** Double click on the state to open the State Editing Form dialog. There you can edit the state's clock invariant.

- **Set Initial:** Select the initial state then set that property from the state's context menu.

- **Set Urgent:** Select the state then set that property from the states's context menu or double click on the state to open the State Editing Form dialog and then select the Urgent choice.

- **Set Commited:** Select the state then set that property from the states's context menu or double click on the state to open the State Editing Form dialog and then select the Commited choice.

3.6.1.2.3 Transition

A transition is used to describe how the state of the process changes as the result of some action of the process. It is composed of six parts.

- **Selections** non-deterministically bind a given identifier to a value in a given range. The other parts of the transition are within the scope of this binding.

- **Event** is the name of the action making the process to change. Processes can also synchronize over channels.

- **Clock Guard** is the timed constraint of transition execution.

- **Transition Guard**, a boolean expression, is the condition of the action to happen.
- **Program** is the description of the action. It defines updated information from the current state if this action is triggered. It is a sequence of command and may contain while-loops, if-then-else.

- **Reset Clocks** is setting the clock to zero.

The transition label is represented as below: `select : selections clocks : <clock guard>[transition guard]event{program}clockreset: clock`. A selection binds a variable, which appears in `clock guard`, `transition guard`, `event`, `program` or `clock reset` parts, in a given range. The evaluation order of the transition is in the following: first, the transition guard is checked, followed by the clock guard. When both guards are valid, the event occurs, in the meantime, the program is updated and the clock is reset. If transitions labelled with complementary actions over a common channel, the evaluation order of a channel likes the following:

1. channel output guard evaluation and checking
2. channel output clock guard evaluation and checking
3. channel output channel name evaluation
4. channel input channel name evaluation
5. channel input guard evaluation and checking
6. channel input clock guard evaluation and checking
7. channel output program evaluation
8. channel input program evaluation.

In the above picture, the transition from state Occ to state Free is defined as \( \text{select : } e :\{0..N-1\} \ [e == \text{queue.First()}] \ \text{leave}[e]? \ \{\text{queue.Dequeue();}\}, \) where \( \text{queue} \) is an instance of data type Queue defined as a class in C# language, \( \text{First()} \) and \( \text{Dequeue()} \) are functions defined in the Queue class. The range of variable \( e \) is from 0 to N-1, and the value of \( e \) in the transition guard and event should also be in this scope. If Boolean expression \( e == \text{queue.First()} \) returns true, then if processes can synchronize over channel \( \text{leave}[e] \) (value of \( e \) should be the same in the transition guard), in this case, event \( \text{leave}[e]! \) occurs, followed by the execution of program \( \text{queue.Dequeue}() \).

There are some actions which can do with the Transition:

- Create Transition: Select the Add Link function then select the first state and the second state. Between selections of the two states, you can click in the canvas to create a new Nail. Nail is a small dot in yellow color. It is used to divide the transition in segments.
- Delete Transition: Select the link then click the Delete function or select Delete function from that link's context menu.
- Create Nail: Right click on the link and select New Nail.
- Delete Nail: Select the Nail then select the delete function from the toolbar or its context menu.
- Move Nail: Select the Nail and drag the nail to the desired position.
3.6.1.3 Grammar Rules

Declaration
  : (specBody)*
  
  specBody
  : library
  | letDefinition
  | assertion
  | define
  | channel
library
:'#' 'import' STRING ';';//import the library by full dll path or DLLname under the Lib folder
;
letDefinition
:'var' ID ('< datatpe=ID '>')?variableRange? ('=' expression)?';';//user defined datatype is supported using <type>
'|var' ID variableRange? '=' recordExpression ;'
'|var' ID ('[ expression ']')+ variableRange? ('=recordExpression)?';';//multi-dimensional array unsupported
| ('clock') ID ('[ expression ']')?;'
;
variableRange
:<' { additiveExpression?..' additiveExpression? '}'
;
recordExpression
: [ recordElement (',recordElement)* ]'
;
recordElement
:e1=expression('(' e2=expression ')')
e1=expression'.e2=expression
;
assertion
:'#' 'assert' definitionRef
( (|= (' '|' ') [' '] ['<>'] | ID | STRING | '! ' | '?' | '&&' | '||' | '->' | '<->' | '&&' | 'VV' | ':' | INT )+ )
|deadlockfree'
|nonterminating'
|divergencefree'
|deterministic'
|reaches' ID withClause
|refines' definitionRef
|refines' '<F>' definitionRef
|refines' '<FD>' definitionRef
)
;
withClause
:'with' ('min' | 'max') (' expression')
;
definitionRef
:ID ('("'))?
;
define: '#' 'define' ID INT ;'
unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus
: INT
| 'true'
| 'false'
| 'call' (' ID (', conditionalOrExpression)* ')
| newID '((conditionalOrExpression ,', conditionalOrExpression*)?)'
| ID '.' ID '((conditionalOrExpression ,', conditionalOrExpression*)?)'
| arrayExpression '.' ID '((conditionalOrExpression (',conditionalOrExpression*)?)')

arrayExpression
: (' conditionalOrExpression ')
ID
;
arrayExpression : ID('[ conditionalOrExpression ']')+
;
ifExpression :
  'if' (' expression ')' statement ('else'statement)?
;
whileExpression :
  'while' (' expression ')' statement
;
channel :
  'channel' ID (' [' expression ']')? ';'
;
definition :
  ID=' interleavedExp ';'
| 'Process' STRING(' (' ID (' ID *)? ')'?[STRING ']': stateDef+ transition* ';'
;
stateDef :
  'State:' STRING clockConstraints? '[U]'? '[C]'?
;
transition :
  STRING '--' select? clockConstraints? (' conditionalOrExpression ')? '#@@' eventM '@@##'(block)?
clockRestExpression? '--->' STRING
;
interleaveExp :
  indexedInterleave ( ('||||' indexedInterleave)+)
;
indexedInterleave :
  atom
| '|||' (paradef('; ' paradef *))@atom
| '!'indexedInterleave ')
;
3.6.2 TA Module Tutorial

In this section, we illustrate the TA module's modeling language with the Fischer's Protocol Example, Railway Control System Example and CSMA/CD Protocol Example.

3.6.2.1 Fischer's Protocol

Fischer's protocol we examined here is a mutual exclusion protocol designed for n processes. It only assumes atomic reads and writes to a shared variable (when the first mutual exclusion protocols were developed in the late 1960s all exclusion protocols were of the "shared variable kind", later on researchers have more concentrated on the "semaphore kind" of protocol). Mutual exclusion in Fischer's Protocol is guaranteed by carefully placing bounds on the execution times of the instructions, leading to a protocol which is very simple, and relies heavily on time aspects.

The global declaration part

```
#define k 2;
#define Idle -1;
#define N 4;

var id = Idle;
var count = 0;

clock x[N];
```

In this example, we define N as a constant that represents four processes competing for the shared variable. Clock x[N] is an array which records the clock value of each process during the execution. Constant k constrains every process must finish their request within k time slots. Idle denotes the shared variable is not been used. Variable id records the shared variable state, initial, it's idle. Variable count records the number
of processes that has got the shared variable and it has to be no more than one all the time.

The process definition part

Process P with parameter i:

The whole system is defined as follows:

System = ||| y:{0..N-1} @P(y);

The assertion part

///verifying mutual exclusion by reachability analysis
#define MutualExclusionFail count > 1;
#assert System reaches MutualExclusionFail;
3.6.2.2 Railway Control System

In this example, we model a railway control system to automatically control trains passing a critical point such as a bridge. The idea is to use a computer to guide trains from several tracks crossing a single bridge instead of building many bridges. Obviously, a safety-property of such a system is to avoid the situation where more than one train are crossing the bridge at the same time.

For more details about this example, see [WangPD94].
In this example, we import the external C# library to use the queue functions. Constant N represents the number of trains. We define arrays of channels to represent the status of the N trains. Clock x[N] is an array which record the clock value of each train during the execution.

The process definition part

Train Process with parameter i:
Gate process:
The whole system is defined as follows:

System = ||| z:{0..N-1}@Train(z) ||| Gate;

The assertion part

////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
#assert System deadlockfree;

//Whenever a train approaches the bridge, it will eventually cross.
#assert System |= []("appr[1]" -> <> "leave[1]"); //Notice: channel should be specified as a string enclosed within a pair of " ".

//overflow: There can never be N elements in the queue (thus the array will not overflow).
#define overflow (queue.Count() > N);
#assert System reaches overflow;

[TOP]
3.6.2.3 CSMA/CD Protocol

In a broadcast network with a multi-access bus, the problem of assigning the bus to only one of many competing stations arises. The CSMA/CD protocol (Carrier Sense, Multiple-Access with Collision Detection) describes one solution. Roughly, whenever a station has data to send, if first listens to the bus. If the bus is idle (i.e., no other station is transmitting), the station begins to send a message. If it detects a busy bus in this process, it waits a random amount of time and then repeats the operation.

The global declaration part

//////////The Model///////////

#define N 4; //number of stations

channel begin;

channel end;

channel busy;

channel cd[N];

var k = [-1(N)]; //record state of the station, 0: sending the message

var j = 0; //used to broadcast the collision message

clock x; //the clock for bus

clock y[N]; //the clock for the station

In this example, we define N as a constant that represents four stations competing for the bus. channel begin represents that station begins to send messages; channel end represents that the station completes the transmission; channel busy represents that one station is sending the messages on the bus; channel cd[N] is an array of channels, representing that the $ith$ station receives a collision.

The process definition part

Bus Process:
Station Process with parameter i:
In this example, when process Bus is in the bus_collision state, and process Station(0) is in the sender_retry state, the next execution is that two processes synchronise by channel cd, the evaluation order of the channel cd likes the following:

1. channel cd[j]! output clock guard (x<26) evaluation and checking
2. channel cd[j]! output channel name evaluation (j)
3. channel cd[i]? input channel name evaluation (the value of i is 0)
4. channel cd[i]? input clock guard (y[i]<52) evaluation and checking
5. channel output program (j=j+1) evaluation

The whole system is defined as follows:

CSMACD = (|||m :{0..N-1} @ Station(m)) ||| Bus;

[assert CSMACD deadlockfree;]

3.7 3.7 NesC Module

Sensor network applications are expected to perform critical tasks unattendedly for a long period, thus it is important to verify their reliability and correctness. Currently common programming languages, e.g. NesC, and platforms, e.g. TinyOS, for sensor networks adopt the low-level programming style. Although such designs are able to
provide fine-grained control over the underlying resource constraints, they are difficult for human to comprehend, maintain, debug and verify sensor network applications.

PAT is developed to apply model checking techniques to the sensor network domain by this NesC module. The NesC module of PAT is created to automatically analyze behaviors and verify properties of TinyOS applications implemented in NesC. NesC programs are parsed to LTS semantic models, upon which the behaviors of TinyOS applications are analyzed and their properties are verified. The tool can assist program developers to analyze, simulate and verify their code, consequently improving the correctness and reliability of sensor network applications.

Currently, the implementation of NesC module follows the language features of NesC, and the execution model of TinyOS model, which are presented in the book TinyOS Programming by Philip Levis. Most syntax of the NesC language is supported now. Our approach is to generate Label Transition System (LTS) from nesC source code, and then explore the state space of the LTS to verify whether it satisfies certain properties.

**Important notice: NesC module only supports application of TinyOS 2.x.**

PAT is extended with this NesC module to automatically generate LTS semantic model from NesC programs, with a graphical behavior analysis interface (Simultor) and an interface for verifying various properties (Model Checker). The following figure shows the architecture of the NesC module in PAT.
Firstly, NesC source code is input to the NesC Process Generator, which generates NesC processes, with supports from the static NesC process library of TinyOS components; secondly, LTS Generator produces the corresponding LTS model; finally, execution traces of the resultant LTS are displayed via the simulator, and its the state space is explored by model checking algorithms to verify user-specified properties via the model checker.

3.7.1 Language Reference

In this section, we illustrate the language features of NesC, including the concepts of interface, module, and configuration. In addition, the TinyOS library is discussed, which is provided in PAT as hardware abstractions and system services for NesC programs. Further, the assertion annotation language which is used to specify various properties as verification goal is presented.
3.7.1.1 Drawing a Sensor Network

A graphical editor is provided for

- drawing a sensor network
- editing each sensor to configure the NesC program running on it
- editing verification goals (i.e., assertions)

3.7.1.2 The NesC Language

The extension of NesC programs ".nc" is supported here. In addition, users are allowed to provide ".h" files within their NesC source code files. We tried to provide the most convenience for users such that NesC programmers can easily put the same code that is to run on real hardware to be analyzed and verified by our tool.

- (A) NesC Concepts
- (B) Datatypes and Data Structures
- (C) Operators
- (D) Statements

3.7.1.3 TinyOS Library

A NesC program always invokes functions implemented by TinyOS, thus it is necessary to simulate the functions provided by TinyOS. We studied the source code of TinyOS as well as supporting documents, and have manually provided a subset of the components and interfaces pre-defined by TinyOS, which is to be used during the analysis and verification of NesC programs. We are now in the progress to automatically generate a complete library covering all components and interfaces of TinyOS.

3.7.1.4 Semantic Model

The semantic model (LTS) of a NesC application is generated in PAT, based on the language features of NesC and the execution model of TinyOS.
3.7.1.5 Assertions

The verification of NesC programs requires users to input properties in terms of assertions in our tool. Currently, we have supports for verifying three kinds of assertions: deadlock freeness, state reachability, and temporal properties.

3.7.1.1 Drawing a Sensor Network

This section shows how to create a sensor network model for simulation and verification in PAT.

There are a few steps:
(A). Create a new sensor network model;
(B). Add sensor nodes and links between them;
(C). Edit sensor information: assign application for running on them;
(D). Edit verification goals;
(E). Simulation;
(F). Verification.

(A) Create a new sensor network model

From the main menu, click "File -> New -> NESC Model".
PAT will create a sensor network model automatically, which has one sensor and the sensor is named Sensor1.

(B) Add sensor nodes and links between them

A new sensor will be created by first clicking the green button on the Network editing panel and then click the white panel to place the new sensor.
When a new sensor is created, it is automatically added to the list on the Sensors list on the left of the network editing panel.

Similar, clicking the arrow button and then clicking two sensors sequentially will create a logical link between two sensors. In PAT, a network topology is considered as a directed graph.

E.G., adding a data link between sensor1 and sensor2.
(C) Edit sensor information

One can view the details of the sensor by double click it. As shown in the following figure, when a new sensor is created, it is assigned with "app" application by default. Note that this app program does not really exist, so the next step is to edit the sensor information.
The table below explains each entry in the sensor editing form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Nullable</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Name of the sensor</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Each sensor should have a unique name, for accessing its local status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOS_NODE_ID</td>
<td>The unique ID of the sensor</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Each sensor should have a unique ID, similar what is required in TinyOS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>The NesC program running on the</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>The model (.sn file) should be saved in the same path where there are the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensor's Range</td>
<td>The data range of each sensor device</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>If null, PAT will use the default data range ([0, 1]) for sensor devices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffer Size</td>
<td>The size of the buffer for storing incoming msg's</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>If null, PAT will use the default size (1) for each sensor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another way to edit a sensor is to right click it from the **Sensors** list, which will also open the sensor editing form.

The top-level configuration of the NesC program assigned to a certain sensor can be viewed in PAT editor, by double clicking the sensor from the **Sensors** list on the left panel.
E.G., the following shows the code of *Sensor1*. *Sensor1* is configured to run a NesC program with 
*BlinkAppC* being the top-level configuration/component.
(D) Edit verification goals

Double click Assertion item to switch to the assertion editor.
In the assertion editor, one can edit any number of assertions for verification. The syntax for writing assertions can be found in 3.7.1.5 Assertions.

(E) Simulation

Clicking the Simulation button or pressing F6 will open the Simulation form.

(F) Verification

Clicking the Verification button or pressing F7 will open the Verification form.
3.7.1.2 The NesC Language

The development of NesC module in PAT aims at automatically analyzing, simulating and verifying NesC programs running on TinyOS. Therefore, we tried to support the full set of NesC syntax, including NesC structures, C-like language syntax, etc. A NesC application can be implemented by a number of .nc files and .h files, where .nc files define interface, module, or configuration, and .h files define some constants and data structures. NesC code implemented in the form of .nc files and .h files can be compiled, analyzed, simulated and verified in our tool.

(A) NesC Concepts

Interface

An nesC interface is defined as the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interface Syntax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interface name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>command datatype name(datatype arg1, ...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>event datatype name(datatype arg1, ...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, the content of file Leds.nc defines the interface Leds:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Code: Leds.nc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interface Leds {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>async command void ledOn();</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>async command void ledOff();</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
async command void led0Toggle();

}

**Module**

A nesC module defines a lower-level component, which can be referred by a higher-level one defined by a configuration. The syntax of a module is given as the following:

### Syntax of a module definition file

```plaintext
module name {
    uses interface name;
    ...
    provides interface name;
    ...
}

} implementation {
    datatype var, ...
    command datatype name.name(datatype arg,...){
        //command implementation statements
    }
    ...
    event datatype name.name(datatype arg,...){
        //event implementation statements
    }
    ...
    task void name(){
        //task statements
    }
    ...
}
```
For instance, the content of the file LedsP.nc defines a component named LedsP:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Code: LedsP.nc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>module LedsP() {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface Init;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface Leds;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uses {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface GeneralIO as Led0;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface GeneralIO as Led1;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface GeneralIO as Led2;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implementation {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>command error_t Init.init() {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic {</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|        dbg("Init","LEDS: initialized.
|        call Led0.makeOutput(); |
|        call Led0.set(); |
|      }              |
|    }                |
|    return SUCCESS;  |
|  }                   |
| async command void Leds.led0On() { |
|    call Led0.clr(); |
|    DBGLED(0);       |
| }                    |
| async command void Leds.led0Off() { |
Configuration

A configuration is the other kind of component (one kind is module) in NesC. A configuration wires components to one another via bi-directional interfaces. In a configuration, components are wired to one another via bi-directional interfaces. These wiring statements are most important, because they bring all components defined elsewhere together to be an application. Each NesC application should have a configuration which is the top-level component and specifies the starting point of its execution.

The syntax of a configuration is shown below:

**Syntax of a configuration definition file**

| configuration name { |
| - provides interface name; |
| - ... |
| - uses interface name; |
| } |
| implementation { |
| - component name, ...; |
| - name(.name) -> name(.name); |
| - name(.name) <- name(.name); |
(B) Datatypes and Data Structures

NesC supports the whole set of data types and structures of C language. In PAT, all these types and structures are supported, except floating and double data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary data type</td>
<td>int, char, void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integer type</td>
<td>int, int8_t, int16_t, int 32_t, int64_t, uint8_t, uint16_t, uint32_t, uint64_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User defined type</td>
<td>typedef type identifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enumerated type</td>
<td>enum identifier {value 1, value 2, ...}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>struct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointer</td>
<td>pointers of the supported types in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) Operators

The NesC module in PAT supports all the operators of NesC, which are the same as those of C language. The following table shows all the operators with their precedences, description and associativity.

<p>| Precedence | Operator | Description | Associativity |
|------------|----------|-------------|---------------|---------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>++ -- ( ) []</td>
<td>Suffix increment and decrement, Function call, Array subscripting, Element selection by reference, Element selection through pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>++ -- + - ! ~ (type) * &amp; sizeof</td>
<td>Prefix increment and decrement, Unary plus and minus, Logical NOT and bitwise NOT, Type cast, Indirection (dereference), Address-of, Size-of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>* / %</td>
<td>Multiplication, division, and modulus (remainder)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>+ -</td>
<td>Addition and subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>&lt;&lt; &gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Bitwise left shift and right shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>&lt; &lt;= (LT) and less than or equal to (LE)</td>
<td>For relational operators less than (LT) and less than or equal to (LE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>&gt; &gt;= (GT) and greater than or equal to (GE)</td>
<td>For relational operators greater than (GT) and greater than or equal to (GE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>== !=</td>
<td>For relational equal to and inequal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>Bitwise AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>^</td>
<td>Bitwise XOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Bitwise OR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Logical AND

Logical OR

Ternary conditional

Direct assignment
Assignment by sum or difference
Assignment by product, quotient and remainder

(D)

Some important statements are given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Syntax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if/if-else</td>
<td>same as C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while/do-while</td>
<td>same as C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for</td>
<td>same as C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>command call</td>
<td>call intf.cmd(...);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>event signal</td>
<td>signal intf.evnt(...);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>task post</td>
<td>post taskname();</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TinyOS is implemented in NesC, as a set of interfaces and components, which abstract hardware services and are necessary for NesC programs to execute correctly. TinyOS is the platform which NesC programs are running upon. It provides
hardware interfaces and services including display(LED), timing(Clock & Alarm), data transfer(UART), sensing(Photo, Temperature, ADC) and communications(Message, Packet, Byte, RFM), as NesC interfaces and components.

TinyOS handles hardware services and its source code traverses a multiple-level hierarchy with a number of components. And the bottom components/interfaces program on chips directly, the semantics of which is quite different from high-level ones. Currently, PAT focuses on the high-level behaviors of NesC applications and we have high confidence on the reliability and correctness of TinyOS, assuming it is always correct. Therefore, PAT comes out with a static library of NesC processes abstracting and modeling the behaviors of components implemented by TinyOS. In summary, several strategies and assumptions are taken into account during modeling hardware services provided by TinyOS.

Firstly, component variables are introduced to model states of certain hardware, although in real TinyOS those variables do not exist. This is justified in that component variables are private and local, and introducing extra component variables will not bring forth variable conflicts in the whole NesC program. For example, component LedsC is an interface to turn on or off leds of a sensor node, and three component variables are introduced to model the state (ON or OFF) of three leds respectively. As for commands such as leds.led0On(), leds.led0Off() and others, which are turning on or off certain leds, they are modeled as NesC processes composed of an assignment updating the value of corresponding component variables.

Secondly, system logics of hardware services are highly abstracted, because of the assumption that hardware has few errors. Moreover, our approach aims at helping NesC programmers to understand their code more easily, to whom TinyOS serves like a black-box. Therefore, for commands that implement straightforward hardware behaviors but are presented in complicated NesC code, we make them compact and abstract with processes updating related states and signaling corresponding events, denoting the
completion of hardware request. For example, command `AMSend.send()` is modeled as process $P = (\text{post sendDone}; \text{return SUCCESS})$, where `post sendDone` posts a task `sendDone()` which simply signals the event `AMSend.sendDone()`.

Thirdly, process `Wait` models the behaviors of Timers. For example, command `Timer.startPeriodic(50)` is modeled as:

```plaintext
while(timer == start){Wait[50];
(signal~Timer.fired())}
```

which signals the event `Timer.fired()` every 50 time units. is used here to model the fact that exactly at the end of 50 time units, the fired event is signaled.

Currently, PAT has only provided a subset of interfaces and components of TinyOS, as shown in the below table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Interfaces</th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initialization</td>
<td>Boot, Init</td>
<td>MainC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timing</td>
<td>Timer, Alarm</td>
<td>TimerMilliC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packet</td>
<td>PacketAcknowledgements, AMPacket, Packet, CollectionPacket</td>
<td>ActiveMessageC, SerialActiveMessageC,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Send, Receive</td>
<td>AMSenderC, AMReceiverC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leds</td>
<td>Display</td>
<td>LedsC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensing</td>
<td>Read,</td>
<td>DemoSensorC,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>SplitControl, StdControl, RootControl</td>
<td>MainC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7.1.4 Semantic Model

Coming out soon.

3.7.1.5 Assertions

Our assertion annotation language includes assertions for defining deadlock freeness, state reachability, and temporal properties. In PAT, *System* is a default keyword which represents the LTS of the input NesC application. The following describe the syntax and usage of each type of assertion, as well as the BNF of defining an assertion in PAT.

(A) Deadlock Freeness Checking (Nontermination Checking)

Deadlock freeness (also called nontermination) is an critical and desirable property of most sensor network applications, since such applications are always expected to run unattendedly for a long period like months or even years.

### Syntax of Deadlock Freeness/Nontermination Checking

```
#assert System deadlockfree (#assert System nonterminate)
```

(B) State Reachability Checking

State reachability checking is to verify whether a certain state can be reached within finite steps of execution.
Syntax of State Reachability Checking

```c
#pragma assert System reaches State;
```

A state is defined in the following syntax, by a logical formula on variables of components.
The following defines a state with the name `State`.

### Syntax for defining a state

```c
#define State \\ 
```

Notice that in the following BNF, `v` stands for a component-level variable (e.g. `LedsC.led0` in [BlinkApp Example](#)), and `c` is either a constant value or another variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BNF for logical formula</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \Psi ) ::= ( T ) \quad \text{true}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid ( F ) \quad \text{false}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid ! \Psi \quad \text{negation}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid \Psi \land \Psi \quad \text{conjunction}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid \Psi \lor \Psi \quad \text{disjunction}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v =!!!!!!= c \quad \text{relational equal}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v \neq!!!!!!= c \quad \text{relational inequal}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v &lt; c \quad \text{relational less than}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v \leq c \quad \text{relational less than or equal to}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v &gt; c \quad \text{relational greater than}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\quad \mid v \geq c \quad \text{relational greater than or equal to}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An example of state reachability checking is as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defining a state led1ON</th>
<th>#define led1ON LedsC.led1 == 1;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Checking reachability</td>
<td>#assert System reaches led1ON;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) Temporal Property Checking

A temporal property is specified by a linear temporal logic (LTL) formula, the syntax of temporal property and LTL formula are described in the following tables, respectively.

**Syntax of Temporal Property Checking**

\#assert System |= \( \Phi \);

**BNF for LTL formula**

\( \Phi \) ::= \( T \) \hspace{1cm} \text{true} \\
| \( F \) \hspace{1cm} \text{false} \\
| \( p \) \hspace{1cm} p \text{ ranges over } (\text{States} \cup \text{Actions}) \\
| \( ! \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{negation} \\
| \( \Phi \&\& \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{conjunction} \\
| \( \Phi \mid \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{disjunction} \\
| \( X \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{next time} \\
| \( F \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{eventually} \\
| \( G \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{always} \\
| \( \Phi U \Phi \) \hspace{1cm} \text{until} \\

Notice that \((\text{States} \cup \text{Actions})\) is the union of States, i.e. the set of states defined in by user using the format in \((B)\), and Actions, i.e. the set of actions.
Grammar

Rules of Assertions

Defining an assertion in PAT follows the BNF shown below:

```
assertionExpr :     '#'  'assert'  VAR  ']' '='  ltlExpr  ';'
                |     '#'  'assert'  VAR  'deadlockfree'  ';'
                |     '#'  'assert'  VAR  'reaches'  VAR  ';'
                |     '#'  'assert'  VAR  'reaches'  eventExpr  ';'

eventExpr :         eventEle  (','  eventEle)+

eventEle :          BOOL  |  ERRORT  |  VAR  |  ZERO  |  NATURAL  |  '['  |  ']

ltlExpr :           (ltlTokenExpr)+

ltlTokenExpr :      ltlOprExpr  |  ltlOprEle  |  valueExpr  |

ltlOprExpr :        ltlOprEle  |  valueExpr  |

ltlOprEle :          '('  |  ')'  |  '['  |  ']'  |  '<>'  |  '&amp;'  |  '|'  |  '-'  |  '!'  |  '<->'  |  '\\'  |  '\\'

BOOL :              'TRUE'  |  'FALSE'

ERRORT :            'SUCCESS'  |  'FAIL'  |  'ESIZE'  |  'ECANCEL'  |  'EOFF'  |  'EBUSY'
                        |  'EINVAL'  |  'ERETRY'  |  'ERESERVE'  |  'EALREADY'  |  'ENOMEM'  |  'ENOACK'
                        |  'ELAST'

VAR :               ('a'..'z'|'A'..'Z'|'_')

ZERO :              ('0'..'9')

NATURAL :           ('1'..'9')(0.'9)*
```

3.7.2 3.7.2 nesC Module Tutorial

In this section, we use examples to illustrate how PAT can be used to facilitate the analysis, simulation and verification of NesC applications. PAT supports simulating and verifying both an individual sensor and a sensor network. We will illustrate both levels' analysis via
3.7.2.1 Individual Sensor Tutorial

- BlinkApp Example

3.7.2.2 Sensor Network Tutorial

- LeaderElection Protocol

Last but not least, there are also built-in examples in PAT distribution via "Examples -> NesC Examples". The source files of the examples can be found in PAT distribution via /PAT_Installation/Modules/NESC, where PAT_Installation is the folder where PAT is installed.

3.7.2.1 Individual Sensor Tutorial

Currently, we provide one example for illustrating the simulation and verification of an individual sensor. More examples will be added soon.

- BlinkApp Example
3.7.2.1.1 BlinkApp Example

BlinkApp is a simple application in the TinyOS distribution. BlinkApp toggles the mote LED periodically, with three timers at different periods. The application contains two .nc files:

- BlinkAppC.nc
- BlinkC.nc

The .sn file for PAT is Blink.sn, which contains the verification goals that are discussed in (B)Verification.

(A) Simulation

The figure on the left shows the first few steps when simulating BlinkApp. A square stands for a configuration (state) of the LTS, and an arrow is a transition between configurations, labelled with the corresponding action. As an example, initially, state 1 transits to state 2 with the action Sensor1.BlinkC.call.Timer0.startPeriodic, which means that, component BlinkC calls the command startPeriodic via the interface
Timer0, which will trigger Timer0 to start timing and fire after an amount of time. Similar are the meanings for action Sensor1.BlinkC.call.Timer1.startPeriodic and Sensor1.BlinkC.call.Timer2.startPeriodic.

State 4 transits to state 5 with the label Sensor1.Timer0.firing, which stands for an interrupt from Timer0 meaning that Timer0 is firing. Then Timer.fired event is signaled. This reserves the semantics of the timing service in TinyOS.

State 5 transits to state 6 by signalling the event Timer.fired from the component Timer0. The body of the event Timer.fired is defined by BlinkC. Therefore, state 6 transits to state 7 by the event Sensor1.BlinkC.call.Leds.led0Toggle, which is the only statement of event Timer0.fired in component BlinkC.

In PAT, variables are introduced to model the status of leds. For example, variable Sensor1.LedsC.led0 keeps track of the status of led0 of a mote.
Users can define assertions to verify the NesC application for various properties, using the assertion annotation language described in 3.7.1.4 Assertions. As for BlinkApp, several assertions are defined, with states. The following table defines three states that are used in the assertions later.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Definition</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#define led0ON Sensor1.LedsC.led0 == 1;</td>
<td>Led 0 is ON.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define led0OFF Sensor1.LedsC.led0 == 0;</td>
<td>Led 0 is OFF.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#define led1ON Sensor1.LedsC.led1 == 1;</td>
<td>Led 1 is ON.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table defines eight assertions for different properties of BlinkApp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Assertion</th>
<th>Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1</td>
<td>= &lt;&gt; [] led0ON;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1</td>
<td>= [] &lt;&gt; led0ON;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1 reaches led1ON;</td>
<td>The state where led 1 is ON will be reached within finite steps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line</td>
<td>Assertion</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1 deadlockfree;</td>
<td>The system is deadlock free.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1 nonterminating;</td>
<td>The system is nonterminating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1</td>
<td>= []&lt;&gt; led0OFF;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1</td>
<td>= []((led0ON -&gt; (&lt;&gt; led0OFF)) &amp;&amp; (led0OFF -&gt; (&lt;&gt; led0ON)));</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>#assert Sensor1</td>
<td>= [] &lt;&gt; Sensor1.LedsC.led0Toggle;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of verifying BlinkCApp against the assertions defined above are as the following figure. Notice that all properties are satisfied by BlinkApp, except the first one, which is reasonable.
3.7.2.2 Sensor Network Tutorial

Currently, we provide one example for illustrating the simulation and verification of a sensor network. More examples will be added soon.
3.7.2.2.1 LeaderElection Protocol

LeaderElection protocol is simple network consensus protocol. With this protocol, eventually the sensor with the highest TOS_NODE_ID (which is unique for each sensor) should be elected as the leader.

(To be continued.)

3.8 3.8 Orc Module

Service orchestration systems embrace the concept of Service Oriented Architecture (SOA) and is gaining popularity over the time. Many of such systems support concurrency, and it is known that concurrency bug is difficult to discover solely by testing, thus model checking such systems is crucial.

Orc is proposed as a powerful yet elegant language for distributed and concurrent programming which provides computational services such as distributed communication and data manipulation via sites. With a few concurrency primitives, programmers are able to orchestrate the invocation of sites to achieve a goal, and meanwhile, manage timeouts, priorities, and failures. To guarantee the correctness of Orc models, effective verification support is desirable.
The above illustrates the workflow of our approach. First, users can specify Orc models as well as various assertion properties via the editor. The input models of orchestration language and external services are compiled into internal representations (i.e., LTS), based on the operational semantics of Orc. On top of that Compositional Partial Order Reduction (CPOR) is applied. Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) assertions are subsequently translated into Büchi automata. Users can visualize the system behaviors via an animated simulator, or perform verification using different verifiers. If ever certain assertions or property is violated, a counterexample will be generated which can also be rendered in simulator.

[TOP]

3.8.1 3.8.1 Language Reference.htm

The language references is structured as follows:

3.8.1.1 The ORC Language
This section gives you an overview of Orc language.

3.8.1.2 Addon for Verification

For ease of verification, we introduce several addons to the language. This section will give you an introduction for those addons.

3.8.1.3 Assertions

This section would introduce the assertions that are supported.

3.8.1.4 Supported Sites

This section lists the sites that are supported.

3.8.1.5 Grammar Rules

This section introduce you the complete grammar rules.

[TOP]

3.8.1.1 The ORC Language

The fundamental of Orc calculus is the execution of expressions, which are built up recursively with concurrent combinators. During execution, an expression may call sites (i.e., external services) or publish values. The section served as the brief introduction of the language, for complete coverage of the language, please refer to the [ORCUserGuide].

Site

Sites are basic units of Orc language. A site can be an unreliable external service (e.g., Google), or a predictable and well-defined local service (e.g., if). Henceforth, we will refer the former as external site or external service and latter as local site or local service. The simplest Orc expression is a site call M(p), where M is the service’s name
and p is a list of parameters. The effect of a site call can be response (when it returns a value), halted (when it explicitly reports that it will never respond), or pending (neither response nor halted). As an example, Google("Orc") calls the external service provided by Google and its response is the search result for "Orc" by Google search engine. Site calls are strict, which means that a site can only be called if all its parameters have values.

**Function**

Like many other programming languages, functions are expressions with a defined name and a list of parameters. When a function is called, the function body is executed immediately if it does not make use of unbounded argument expressions, and the argument expressions are executed in parallel with the function body.

**Combinators**

There are four combinators: parallel, sequential, pruning, and otherwise combinators.

- **(1) Parallel Combinator (F | G)**

  The parallel combinator F | G defines a parallel expression, where expressions F and G execute independently, and its published value can be the value published either by F or by G or both of them. As an example, Google("Orc") | Yahoo("Orc") will call Google and Yahoo site for searching "Orc" concurrently.

- **(2) Sequential Combinator (F > x > G)**

  The sequential combinator F > x > G defines a sequential expression, where each value published by F initiates a separate execution of G wherein x is bound to it. The execution of F is then continued in parallel with all these executions of G. The values published by the sequential expression are the values published
by the executions of G. As an example, (Google("Orc") | Yahoo("Orc")) > x > Email(addr; x) will call Google and Yahoo sites simultaneously. For each returned value, an instance of x will be bound to it, and an email will be sent to addr for each instance of x. Thus, up to two emails will be sent. If x is not used in G, F >> G can be used as a shorthand for F > x > G.

• (3) Pruning Combinator (F < x < G)

The pruning combinator F < x < G defines a pruning expression, where initially F and G execute in parallel. However, when F needs the value of x it will be blocked until G publishes a value to bind x and G terminates immediately after that. As an example, Email(addr; x) < x < (Google("Orc") | Yahoo("Orc")) will be able to get the faster result for the email sending to addr. In contrast to sequential expressions, it will publish at most one value. if x is not used in F, F << G can be used as a shorthand for F < x < G.

• (4) Otherwise Combinator (F ; G)

The otherwise combinator F ; G defines an otherwise expression, where F executes first. The execution of F is replaced by G if F halts without any published value. F halts if all site calls are responded or halted, and it does not publish any more value or call any more site. As an example, in (Google("Orc"); Yahoo("Orc")) > x > Email(addr; x), expression Yahoo("Orc") is used as a backup service for searching "Orc" and it will be called only if the site call Google("Orc") halts without any result for "Orc".

Functional Core Language

Orc is enhanced with functional core language (Cor) to support various data types, mathematical operators (e.g., 1+2), conditional expressions (i.e., if E then E else E), etc. The complete supported syntax can be found in Section 3.8.1.4. Cor structures are eventually translated into the fundamental syntax of Orc.
Example - Metronome

Timer can be used to execute an action periodically, e.g. polling a service on a regular interval. Following is a function that defines a metronome, which executes an action at regular intervals. Note that the function is defined recursively.

\[
def \text{metronome}(t) = \text{signal} \mid \text{Rtimer}(t) \gg \text{metronome}()
\]

The following example publishes "tick" once per second, and publishes "tock" once per second after an initial half-second delay. Thus the publications are "tick tock tick ... " where "tick" and "tock" alternate each other

\[
\text{metronome}(1000) \gg \text{"tick"} \\
\mid \text{Rtimer}(500) \gg \text{metronome}(1000) \gg \text{"tock"}
\]

3.8.1.2 3.8.1.2 Addon for Verification.htm

Sites for Verification

Global Variable

As Orc does not have a notion of global variable, in order to be able to easily assert a global property that holds throughout the program, we extend Orc with a notion of global variable. Global variable in Orc must prefixed by \texttt{globalvar} keyword, and defining at the beginning of the program.

\textbf{GUpdate Site}

To assign a value to a global variable directly, a special site \texttt{GUpdate} is provided.

Consider the metronome example in Section 3.8.1.1 with global variables and $GUpdate inserted,
we can verify whether it is possible to have two consecutive "tick"s or two consecutive "tock"s by checking whether the system is able to reach the state satisfying \( \text{tickNum} < 0 \lor \text{tickNum} > 1 \).

**Global Variable Initialization** Sometimes, global variable need to be initialized before its use. The initialization section is declared just after the global variable declaration, and the section is surrounded by curly bracket \{ \}.

Consider the example below, the global variable arr is a two-element array, and it is initialize with the value \([2,1]\) before it is passed the the quicksort function.

```
globalvar arr = Array(2)
    {arr.set(0,2) >> arr.set(1,1)}

def quicksort(a) = ...
    quicksort(arr)
```

**External Sites Modeling**

Service orchestration systems would normally involve external services. External services would incur, furthermore, there might be cases where communication halted unexpectedly, or the services simply non-responsive.

Following is the syntax that used to model the external site,

```
ExternalSite SiteName(Args)[haltAllow{Delay}]{DelayTups}
    SystemVarDecl
    {SystemVarInits}
```
where ExternalSite and EndSite denotes the start and end of the external site modeling. SiteName is the service name of the external site; Args is a set of arguments for the site; haltAllow is an optional tag to specify whether to model the halting behavior, and Delays is a set of natural numbers which denotes the possible delays before halting. DelayTups is a set of tuple \((t_1, t_2)\) which is used to specify all possible communication delays of the external service. The domain of \(t_1\) and \(t_2\) is natural numbers. \(t_1\) is the forward trip delay, which is used to specify the communication delay for the service call to reach the external services plus the processing time needed just before the internal storage of external services is updated. For simplicity of modeling, internal storage of external services are assumed to be updated instantaneously at time \(t_1\) and if there are multiple internal storages to be updated, we assumed all are updated at the same time. \(t_2\) is the return trip delay, which is used to specify the processing time of the external services just after the update of internal storage plus the delay of returned value traveling back from the external service. Thus, the total roundtrip delay is \(t_1 + t_2\). DelayTups also allows a special "inf "(infinity delay) symbol, which is used to denote the non-responsive behavior. SystemVarDecl is a list of system variable declarations, which is used to model the global internal storage for the stateful external service. All the system variable declarations are required to start with the systemvar keyword. SystemVarInits is the section that initialize the declared system variables, and the section is surrounded by curly bracket \{\} just like global variable intialization. ORCExpression is the body of the external site modelling and it is used to specify the output value of external site with respect to the input arguments Args.

**Example - Auction Service**

```
ExternalSite Auction(x)[haltAllow{1, 2}]{{1,1}, inf} =
  systemvar AuctionList = Buffer()
  {AuctionList.put("1")}
```
The above syntax specifies an Auction external site. AuctionList is started with a value "1". Assume argument x=("post", 100), the possible behaviors are

- A. After 1 time unit, the external services updated the Auction-List with the value 100, and spent another 1 time unit for the signal value to come back to the caller;
- B. After 1 time unit, the system is halted;
- C. After 2 time units, the system is halted;
- D. The service call is non-responsive.

[TOP]

3.8.1.3 Assertions.htm

Reasoning on System Behaviour

Deadlock-freeness

Given a system in Orc, the following assertion asks whether the System is deadlock-free or not.

```assert System deadlockfree;```

Reachability

Given a system in Orc, the following assertion asks whether P() can reach a state at which some given condition is satisfied.

```assert P() reaches cond;```
Consider the metronome example as described in section 3.8.1.1 with GUpdate and #define section added

- globalvar tickNum = 0
- metronome(1000) >> $GUpdate({tickNum = tickNum + 1})>> "tick"
- | Rtimer(500) >> metronome(1000) >> $GUpdate({tickNum = tickNum - 1}) >> "tock"
- #define consecutiveTickOrTock (tickNum < 0 || tickNum > 1)

The #define section defines a condition named as consecutiveTickOrTock which represents the condition such that tickNum is either smaller than 0 or larger than 1. The following assertion queries that whether the System is possible to reach the condition consecutiveTickOrTock.

#assert System reaches consecutiveTickOrTock;

Linear Temporal Logic

In PAT, we support the full set of LTL syntax. Given a system in Orc, the following assertion asks whether the system satisfied LTL property F

#assert System |= F;

where F is an LTL formula whose syntax is defined as the following rules,

F = "p" | prop | [] F | <> F | X F | F1 U F2 | F1 R F2

where p is a publish value, prop is a pre-defined proposition, [] reads as "always" (also can be written as 'G' in PAT), <> reads as "eventually" (also can be written as 'F' in PAT), X reads as "next", U reads as "until" and R reads as "Release" (also can be written as 'V' in PAT). Consider the metronome example (Section 3.8.1.1), we can query whether the system is always not possible to reach a state that satisfies consecutiveTickOrTock with the following assertion
we can also query whether the system can always eventually publish value "tick" in the future with the following assertion

#assert System |= []<>"tick";

Reasoning on Non-Responsive Sites

A non-responsive service is normally up to the operating system to decide when to end the connection. The undeterministic waiting time is not always desirable especially in time-critical system. In time-critical system, the system might expect the value to be received within certain time units, or otherwise, some alternative remedy actions will be done. In such case, proper timeout mechanism need to be introduced to end the non-responsive service if it takes longer than the t time units. Orc has provided such timeout mechanism. As an example, the Orc expression \( x < x < (Google("Orc") | Rtimer(5) >> ...) \) will end the Google service if it does not return within 5 time units, where ... denotes the necessary remedy actions. Nonetheless, it is possible that some external services in the system are leaved unhandled for their potential non-responsive behaviour due to human errors. We provide two kinds of assertions for the user to find out unhandled non-responsive site call in their system. The assumption for the checking is that, there is no external parties like operating system that will help to end the non-responsive site call. A special site NRS is used to internally simulate the behaviour of non-responsive site.

Non-Responsive Site Deadlock (NRSDeadlock)

This is to check whether the non-responsive site call can cause the system deadlock. The following assertion asks whether the system is free of NRSDeadlock behaviour,

#assert System nrsdeadlockfree;
Non-Responsive Site Cycle (NRSCycle)

This is to check whether there exists non-responsive site call that does not cause the system deadlock, but it is always unhandled. Consider expression \((S1 \gg S2) \mid S3\), if \(S1\) is non-responsive external site call and \(S3\) is always executable (i.e., deadlock-free), the system will still be running smoothly, since \(S1\) and \(S3\) is run on different threads or processors. Nonetheless, \(S2\) will never be run. The following assertion asks whether the system is free of NRSCycle behaviour,

\[
\text{#assert System nrscyclefree;}
\]

3.8.1.4 3.8.1.4 Supported Sites.htm

For the details of usage of the sites that are listed here, please refer to [ORCUserGuide].

1. Fundamental sites and operators
let, if, (op)

2. General-purpose supplemental data structures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semaphore</td>
<td>acquire, acquirenb, release</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffer</td>
<td>get, getnb, put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SyncChannel</td>
<td>get, put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ref</td>
<td>read, write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array</td>
<td>fill, get, set, length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter</td>
<td>inc, dec, onZero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set</td>
<td>add, contains, remove, size</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Relative Timer
3.8.1.5 3.8.1.5 Grammar Rules.htm

Exp ::= (Expression)
       (Ext)* (Gvar)* {E} E (Define)* (Assert)*

Ext ::= (External Site)
       ExternalSite X(P,...,P)([haltAllow{TimeREx}])?{TimeEx} (external site header)
       (SVar)* (system variable declaration)
       {E} (system variable initialization)
       E (external site body)
       EndSite (external site footer)

TimeREx ::= (Time Range Expression)
           (Integer,Integer) (time range tuple)
           | inf (infinity/non-response)

TimeEx ::= (Time Expression)
          Integer,...,Integer (time List)

GVar ::= (Global Variable)
        globalvar X(=P)? (global variable declaration)

SVar ::= (System Variable)
        systemvar X(=P)? (system variable declaration)

E ::= (ORC Expression)
C | constant value
| X | variable
| stop | silent expression
| (E , ... , E ) | tuple
| [E , ... , E ] | list
| E G+ | call
| op E | prefix operator
| E op E | infix operator
| if E then E else E | conditional
| E >P> E | sequential combinator
| E | E | parallel combinator
| E <P< E | pruning combinator
| E ; E | otherwise combinator

G ::= (Argument group)

( E , ... , E ) (arguments)
|
.
(field field access)

C ::= (Constant)

Boolean
| Integer
| String
| signal
| null

X ::= (Variable)

Identifier
D ::= 
   \text{val } P = E \quad \text{(value declaration)}
\mid \text{def } X( P , \ldots , P ) = E \quad \text{(function declaration)}

P ::= 
   X \quad \text{(variable)}
\mid C \quad \text{(constant)}
\mid \_ \quad \text{(wildcard)}
\mid ( P , \ldots , P ) \quad \text{(tuple pattern)}
\mid [ P , \ldots , P ] \quad \text{(list pattern)}
\mid P : P \quad \text{(cons pattern)}

Define::= 
   \text{\#define } X ( E ) \quad \text{(Condition Definition)}

Assert::= 
   \text{\#assert System (deadlock-freeness check)}
   \mid \text{reaches } X \quad \text{(reachability check)}
   \mid \models \text{ LTL (ltl check)}
   \mid \text{nrsdeadlockfree } \text{(nrsdeadlock-freeness check)}
   \mid \text{nrscyclefree) } \text{(nrscycle-freeness check)}

LTL::= 
   "C" \quad \text{(publish value)}
\mid X \quad \text{(predefined condition)}
\mid [] \text{ LTL (always)}
\mid <> \text{ LTL (eventually)}
In this section, we illustrate the RTS module's modeling language using a number of examples.

**Metronome**

**Concurrent Quicksort**

**Auction Management**

Metronome executes an action at regular intervals, e.g., polling a service on a regular interval.

```plaintext
globalvar tickNum=0

def metronome(t) = signal | Rtimer(t) >> metronome(t)
```

The above defines a metronome where it publishes signal every t time unit.
metronome(1000) >> $GUpdate({tickNum=tickNum+1}) >> "tick"
| Rtimer(500) >> metronome(1000) >> $GUpdate({tickNum=tickNum-1}) >>"tock"

The above publishes "tick" once per second, and publishes "tock" once per second after an initial half-second delay. Thus the publications are "tick tock tick ... " where "tick" and "tock" alternate each other.

#define consecutiveTickOrTock (tickNum < 0 || tickNum > 1)

The above defines a condition named as consecutiveTickOrTock which represents the condition such that tickNum is either smaller than 0 or larger than 1.

#assert System deadlockfree;

The above checks whether the system is deadlock-free.

#assert System |= []<"tick" && []<"tock";

The above checks whether the system can always eventually publish "tick" and always eventually publish "tock".

#assert System |= []!consecutiveTickOrTock;

The above checks that whether the system always not satisfies the condition specified by consecutiveTickOrTock.

#assert System reaches consecutiveTickOrTock;

The above checks that whether the system can reaches the condition specified by consecutiveTickOrTock.

[TOP]
Concurrent Quicksort is a variant of classic quicksort algorithm which emphasizes its concurrent perspective.

```
globalvar arr=Array(3){arr.set(0,3)>>arr.set(1,2)>>arr.set(2,1)}
```

The above defines a global variable `arr` of type array, which has [3,2,1] as its initial value.

```text
- def quicksort(a) =
-   def swap(x, y) = a.get(x) >z> a.set(x, a.get(y)) >> a.set(y,z)
- def part(p, s, t) =
-   def lr(i) = if i < t && a.get(i) <= p then lr(i+1) else i
-   def rl(i) = if a.get(i) > p then rl(i-1) else i
-   (lr(s), rl(t)) >m> (s', t') >
-   (if (s' + 1 < t') >> swap(s', t') >> part(p, s'+1, t'-1)
-     | if (s' + 1 = t') >> swap(s', t') >> s'
-     | if (s' + 1 > t') >> t'
-   ) def sort(s, t) =
-     if s >= t then signal
-     else part(a.get(s), s+1, t) >m>
-     swap(m, s) >>
-     (sort(s, m-1), sort(m+1, t)) >>
-     signal
-     
-     sort(0, a.length()-1)
```

The above defines the quicksort function. Its details can be found at [AQDKJM09].

```
quicksort(arr)
```

The above input the global variable `arr` for quicksorting.

```
#define sorted (arr.get(0)<arr.get(1) && arr.get(1)<arr.get(2))
```
The above defines a condition named as sorted which represents the situation where the number in the array is sorted in ascending order.

#assert System |= (<sorted) && (sorted -> []sorted);

The assertion above specifies that eventually the array will be sorted, and once the array is sorted it will remain sorted.

[TOP]

3.8.2.3 3.8.2.3 Auction Management.htm

Auction Management [MAJM10] is a simplified online auction management application that manages posting new items for auction, coordinates the bidding process, and announces winners.

- ExternalSite MaxBidSite(x)((1,1))=
  - def MaxBid(bidList,max,maxBidder)=
    - bidList>[]]> (maxBidder,max)
    - | bidList>x:xs>x>(bidder,bid)> if(max>bid) then MaxBid(xs,max,maxBidder)
      else MaxBid(xs,bid,bidder)
  - MaxBid(x,0,0)
- EndSite

The above defines an external site named as MaxBidSite, which has forwarded trip delay of 1 time unit and return trip delay of 1 time unit. The trip delays is the same for all the external sites defined below. The usage of the site is to publish the highest bid of a list of bid.

- ExternalSite Bidder(y)((1,1))=
  - y>(x,id,bid)>
  - (def GetBid(bidList,minBid)=}
The above defines an external site named as **Bidders**, which maintains a list of bidders and their bids, and responds to the message **nextBidList**, which solicits a list of higher bids for the auctioned item.

**Auction** external site maintains a list of available items and responds to **post**, and **getNext** for adding and retrieving an item from the list, respectively. It also responses to **won** for storing the information of winning item.

**Seller** external site maintains a list of item's id, duration, and minbid, and responds to **postNext** for retrieving an item from the list.
**Seller** site, which maintains a list of items to be auctioned and responds to the message *postNext* by publishing the next available item.

- globalvar *bidItemSet* = Set()
- globalvar *wonItemSet* = Set()
- globalvar *conflict* = false

The above declares a list of global variables. *bidItemSet* contains the set of items that has bid on it but has not been sold. *wonItemSet* contains the set of item that has been sold. *conflict* is true only when there is more then one winner for a single item.

- def posting() =
  - Seller("postNext")>a>
  - (a>null> stop)
  - | (a>(id,t,m)> Auction("post",a)>>Rtimer(10)>>posting())
  - )

The **posting** expression recursively queries a given seller site for the next item available for auction *x*, and then posts it to the auction by calling the Auction site.

- def TimeRound(y)=
  - y>(itemId, minBid, duration)>
  - (x<x<(Rtimer(duration)|Bidder("nextBidList",itemId, minBid))>bl>MaxBidSite(bl))
  - ) def bids(x)
  - x>(itemid, duration, wname, wbid)>
  - (if(duration<=0) then
  - (wname,wbid)
else
    TimeRound((itemid, wbid, 10)) > x>
    (
        if (x = signal) then
            bids((itemid, duration - 10, wname, wbid))
        else
            x > (winnername, winnerbid) > bids((itemid, duration - 10, winnername, winnerbid))
    )
    ...

def bidding():
    Auction("getNext") > x>
    (
        (x > (itemid, duration, minValue) > bids((itemid, duration, 0, 0)) > (wname, wbid) > bidItemSet.add(itemid))
        >>
        (if (wname = 0) then bidding() else Auction("won", (wname, itemid, wbid)))
    >>>
    bidItemSet.remove(itemid) >> $GUpdate({conflict = wonItemSet.add(itemid)}) >> bidding()
    )
    )
    |
    x > null > bidding()
The **bidding** expression recursively queries the auction site for the next item available for auction, where an item is a 3-tuple \((itemid, duration, minValue)\), with \(itemid\) the item identifier, \(duration\) its auction duration, and \(minValue\) the starting bid. The expression then collects bids for the item in rounds from the bidders site for the duration of the auction, where each round lasts for a maximum of ten unit of time. Once the bidding ends, the Bidding expression announces the winning information in a 3-tuple \((wname, itemid, wbid)\), with \(wname\) the winning bidder name, \(itemid\) the item identifier and \(wbid\) the winning bid before proceeding to the next item.

\[
posting() \mid bidding()
\]

The above specifies that the posting and bidding activities are running in parallel for an auction.

\[
\#define \text{hasbid} (\text{bidItemSet.size()} > 0)
\]

The above defines a condition named as hasbid which represents the situation where there is some items that have bid on it.

\[
\#define \text{sold} (\text{bidItemSet.size()} = 0)
\]

The above defines a condition named as sold which represents the situation where there is no item that has bid on it.

\[
\#define \text{conflict} (\text{conflict} = \text{true})
\]

The above defines a condition named as conflict which represents the situation where there is more than one winner for a single item.

\[
\#assert \text{System} \models [] (\text{hasbid} \rightarrow <> \text{sold});
\]

The above checks that if there is some elements that has bid on it, eventually all of them are sold.
#assert System |= []! conflict;

The above checks that there will never have more than one winner for a single item.

3.9 3.9 Stateflow (MDL) Module

Stateflow® is a commercial software of the MathWorks Company. It has been widely used in industry, e.g., automobile, to specify and simulate embedded control systems. Stateflow enables graphical representation of hierarchical and parallel state machines with flow charts to describe complex logic. The simulation ability of Stateflow allows users to quickly and visually analyze system behavior under particular circumstances. Unfortunately, the semantics of Stateflow is informally, and even partially, described in its 1358 page long user's guide [Mat09]. Moreover, checking systems by means of simulation becomes deficient when dealing with 1) high-level assurance which usually requires testing over a large number of circumstances and 2) open systems whose exact input functions are often unknown.

We apply PAT to improve the reliability of Stateflow: execution semantics of Stateflow diagrams is formally modelled by PAT's CSP# specification language, and important requirements such as safety can be expressed as CSP# assertions and be automatically validated in PAT. In this module, i.e., Stateflow (MDL) module, we have developed and embedded a translator to automatically transform Stateflow diagrams, stored textually in MDL files, into CSP# models.

3.9.1 3.9.1 Language Reference

Our developed translator takes MDL files which denote Stateflow diagrams in a textual format. A Stateflow diagram can consist of graphical objects, such as states,
transitions and junctions, and textual objects, e.g., events, actions, and data. The way of defining those objects is described in Stateflow user's guide [Mat09].

3.9.2 Stateflow Tutorial

We presents three small but typical examples to demonstrate the applicability and benefits of our approach. These examples are:

- **An alarm controller for cars** [SCAIFESCTM04].
- **A stopwatch with lap time measurement** [HAMON&RUSHBY07].
- **A gear shift controller** from the demo (sf_car.mdl) of the MathWork Company
- **A fault-tolerant fuel control system** from the demo (sldemo_fuelsys.mdl) of the MathWork Company
- **A simplified controller** captures relationships among 13 inputs.

3.9.2.1 Alarm Monitor
An alarm controller system is designed to fulfill two functions: one is to lock car
doors when speed exceeds 20, and the other is to turn on an alarm when speed is
larger than 10 while the seat belt is not worn. The following Stateflow diagram modeling
this alarm monitor system consists of two parallel states, state Speedometer updating
variable speed based on events timeTic and roadTic, and state Car specifying the
dynamic behavior of the monitor. A driver can toggle engine between on and off. When
the engine turns on (in state EngineOn), initially the monitor is at state Stopped. Once
speed is greater than 0, the monitor becomes active by entering state Running
that contains two parallel substates: state Belts can raise an alarm based on the belt
status and speed when it is activated, and state Locks deals with the lock of doors. Note
that all events guarding transitions are inputs from environment (for instance, event
toggle is decided by a driver).
Our PAT model that is automatically generated is available [here](#). The model preserves the hierarchical structure and captures the complex execution order of the diagram. We add six assertions to this PAT model; these assertions specify the desired properties of the alarm monitor system such as whether car speed can exceed 20. Besides assertions, we also tune the PAT model for the efficiency during verification. To be specific, we constrain the speed value from 0 to 21, and the value of belt to be 0 or 1. An auxiliary variable `EngineOn_Entry` indicates the complete of the entry action of state `EngineOn`. The fine-tuned PAT model is available [here](#). Using the PAT model checker, we can exhaustively examine all possible situations that the alarm monitor system may encounter. Furthermore the verification process is fully automated.
With the help of PAT, we found that this alarm monitor system failed to satisfy the desired properties that are denoted by the following assertions.

```plaintext
//engineOn => (speed > 20 => locksDown)
#define goal2 !(Car_EngineOn_Status == active && EngineOn_Entry == 1) || !(speed > 20) || (Car_EngineOn_Running_Locks_LocksOn_Status == active);
ASSERT Stateflow() |= [] goal2;

//engineOn => ((speed > 10 && belt <= 0) => alarm = 1)
#define goal3 !(Car_EngineOn_Status == active && EngineOn_Entry == 1) || !(speed > 1 && belt == notoccurred) || (Car_EngineON_Running_Belts_Status == active);
ASSERT Stateflow() |= [] goal3;
```

For example, the first property (goal2) requires the door must be locked when the engine is on and the speed exceeds 20. The counterexample that is automatically generated by PAT demonstrates the following scenario: a car's speed reaches beyond 20 when its engine is off (for example, the car moves on a slope), when the driver toggles the engine from off to on, the default sub-state *Stopped* is entered, and therefore the event *locksDown* is not able to be generated. To fix the problem, we adopt the solution proposed by Scaife et al., which is to add conditions when entering default states. Reusing the previous example, the default transition to state *Stopped* is guarded by condition \([speed = 0]\) and another condition \([speed > 0]\) is added to guard a new default transition to state *Running*. Similarly, the default transition to state *LocksOff* is
constrained by condition \( [speed \leq 20] \) while condition \( [speed > 20] \) is inserted to guard a new default transition to state \( LocksOn \).

3.9.2.2 3.9.2.2 Stopwatch

A Stopwatch with lap time measurement contains an inner counter that calculates the lapsed time represented by three variables denoting centi-second, second, and minute, respectively. In addition a display is used to show time value to users when needed. It is desired for a stopwatch to present correct time value to users.

The following Stateflow diagram representing the stopwatch comprises two states \( StopW \) and \( RunW \). In state \( StopW \), the counter stops, and all variables are reset to value 0 when button \( LAP \) is pressed in state \( Reset \). In state \( RunW \), the counter updates according to event \( TIC \) and the change is modeled by a flowchart. Furthermore the values of variables for display are equal to those of inner counter in state \( Running \). Note that this diagram illustrates two modeling features of Stateflow: 1. inner transitions (for example, from state \( Reset \) to state \( Running \)), 2. deterministic execution order for
multiple outgoing transitions from the same source state (for instance, outgoing transitions of state \textit{Running}).

Our translated PAT model of this diagram is available \url{here}. We apply the PAT model checker to reason about the correctness of the stopwatch. As depicted below by the PAT assertion \textit{correct1}, the value of centi-second (denoted by \textit{disp\_cent}) of the display should be equal to the centi-second (\textit{cent}) of the inner counter when state \textit{Running} is active. Unfortunately, the stopwatch does not hold the assertion. Actually, we can reach an error circumstance as specified by assertion \textit{error1}, which states an
unexpected behavior that the stopwatch displays value 0 for its centi-second variable although the inner variable centi-second is 3.

```c
#define correct1 !(RunW_Running_Status == active) || disp_cent == cent;
#assert Stateflow() |= [] correct1;

#define error1 RunW_Running_Status == active && disp_cent == 0 && cent == 3;
#assert Stateflow() reaches error1;
```

By tracing the simulations of the above two assertions (thanks to the simulation facility of PAT), we identified the cause: the update of variables for display as the `during` action in state `Running` is problematic. In Stateflow, a `during` action of a state is executed when the state is already active and there is no valid outgoing transition at one simulation time step. In other words, a `during` action of a state will be skipped when the state becomes active and inactive in a pair of adjacent of simulation time steps. Here the stopwatch can behave in a similar way: initially, a user presses the start button (as event `START`), which activates state `Running`, and the user presses the lap button (as event `LAP`) at every simulation time step, which causes state
Running is entered and exited alternatively and its during action is thus not executed, although state Run is active and updates the inner counter.

3.9.2.3 3.9.2.3 Gear Shift

As part of a demo from the MathWorks that uses Simulink to model an automotive drivetrain, its Stateflow diagram as displayed in the following enhances the Simulink model by capturing the transmission control logic. The diagram contains two parallel states, gear_state and selection_state. gear_state consists of four exclusive states that indicate the gear status respectively, and the transition between them is guarded by events UP and DOWN. selection_state determines the direct broadcast of events UP and DOWN, according to the speed value and thresholds down_th and up_th. In addition, the broadcast is also restricted by some real-time constraints; for example, the transition that broadcasts event DOWN to state gear (denoted by {gear.DOWN}) is constrained by the temporal constraint after(TWAIT, tick) that checks if state downshifting has been active for at least TWAIT (a constant) period.
Our translated PAT model of this Stateflow diagram is available [here]. We precisely and concisely capture several Stateflow modeling features possessed in this diagram, such as deterministic execution order between parallel states and between multiple outgoing transitions from the same source state, (direct) event broadcast, and temporal constraints.

3.9.2.4 Fault-tolerant Fuel Controller

The following Stateflow diagram represents a fault management of a fuel control system. The diagram contains four parallel states to denote four separate sensors: a throttle sensor (by state `Throttle`), a speed sensor (state `Speed`), an oxygen sensor (state `Oxygen`), and a pressure sensor (state `Pressure`). Each parallel state contains
two substates, a normal state and a failed state (the exception being the oxygen sensor, which also contains a warmup state).

If any of the sensor readings is outside a predefined range, then a fault is recorded (communicated via direct event broadcasting) in the parallel state Counter, and the corresponding subsystem enters its failed state. If a subsystem recovers, it can change back to the normal state and the number of failures decreases accordingly (via direct event broadcasting as well).

The parallel state at the bottom of the Stateflow diagram controls the fueling mode. It regulates the oxygen to fuel mixture ratio. If a failure is detected, then the oxygen to fuel ratio increases. If multiple failures are detected, then the fuel system is disabled until there are no longer multiple failures in the system. Note that history junctions are used in state Running and state Low respectively to store the last active fueling mode.
The translated CSP# model is available here. Some important Stateflow modeling features, such as History Junctions, Implicit events denoting state entering and exiting, and inter-level transitions, are taken into account.

3.9.2.5 SB Logic

The following Stateflow diagram specifies control logic among 13 inputs.
The automatically translated CSP# model is available here.
3.10 3.10 Security Module

3.10.1 3.10.1 Language Reference

The input language for Security Module is SeVe language. This language is an extension of Casper language. However, we have some amelioration such as time semantics inside the language and many kinds of properties (integrity, fairness, anonomity, non_repudiation). We also have an option for the user to manually or automatically declare the number of participants.

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Section 3.10.1.3.

3.10.1.1 Specification section

3.10.1.2 Verification section

3.10.1.3 Grammar Rules

3.10.1.1 3.10.1.1 Specification section

The protocol specification using SeVe language consists of 5 parts:

1) Declaration section

In this section, we declare the parameter used in protocol description. They include:
Agents

It starts with the keyword `#Agents` followed by the list of agents names used in the protocols.

Servers

It starts with the keyword `#Servers` followed by the list of servers names used in the protocols.

Nonces

It starts with the keyword `#Nonces` followed by the list of nonces used in the protocols.

Public keys

It starts with the keyword `#Public_keys` followed by the list of public keys used in the protocols.

Server keys

It starts with the keyword `#Server_keys` followed by the list of server keys used in the protocols.

Signature keys

It starts with the keyword `#Signature_keys` followed by the list of signature keys used in the protocols.

Inverse keys

It starts with the keyword `#Inverse_keys` followed by the list of inverse keys used in the protocols.
**Constants**

It starts with the keyword `#Constants` followed by the list of constant values used in the protocols.

**Functions**

It starts with the keyword `#Functions` followed by the list of functions name used in the protocols.

2) Initial knowledge section

In this section, we declare the initial knowledge of agents participating in the protocol. It consists of declaration lines, each line has the syntax:

```
agents knows {list of knowledge};
```

3) Protocol description section

This section describes the communication between participants. It consists of description lines, each line has the syntax:

```
participant1 -> participant2 : message
```

4) Actual system section

This section declares the actual participants involving in the protocol. It consists:

Initiator
Declare the actual name of initiators involved in the protocol. It starts with the keyword `#Initiator` followed by the list of participants names.

**Responder**

Declare the actual name of responders involved in the protocol. It starts with the keyword `#Responder` followed by the list of participants names.

**Server**

Declare the actual name of servers involved in the protocol. It starts with the keyword `#Server` followed by the list of participants names.

5) Intruder section

This section declares the information of the intruder. It consists:

**Intruder name**

Declare the name of intruder participating in the protocol. It starts with the keyword `#Intruder` followed by the intruder name.

**Intruder knowledge**

Declare the initial knowledge of the intruder. It starts with the keyword `#Intruder_knowledge` followed by the list of knowledge.

**Intruder_ability**

Declare the ability of the intruder. The ability includes: Transmit, Deflect, Inject, Eavesdrop and Jam It starts with the keyword `#Intruder_ability` followed by the list of ability.
3.10.1.2 Verification section

This section is used to declare the security properties we want to check. They include:

Secrecy

This property is used to check the secret of agents information. It starts with the keyword `#Data_secrecy` followed by the list of information we want to check.

Authentication

This property is used to check the agents authentication. It starts with the keyword `#Authentication` followed by the list of authenticated information we want to check.

Non repudiation

This property is used to check the non_repudiation property of an agent. It starts with the keyword `#Non_repudiation` followed by the list of condition for this non repudiation constraint.

Anonymity

This property is used to check the anonymity property of an agent. It starts with the keyword `#Anonymity` followed by the list of condition for this anonymity constraint.

Fairness

This property is used to check the fairness property of an agent. It starts with the keyword `#Fairness` followed by the list of condition for this fairness constraint.

Integrity
This property is used to check the integrity of agents information. It starts with the keyword \texttt{#Integrity} followed by the list of information we want to check.

\textbf{Temporal specification}

This property is used to check the temporal requirement of the user. That requirement can be \texttt{if} formula \texttt{then} formula. The formula can be one event happens before/after other event, or one event will always/ eventually happens and so on. The user refers to \texttt{Section 3.10.1.3} for more details.

\texttt{3.10.1.3 Grammar Rules}

\texttt{A.1 Program section}

\texttt{Program ::= '# Variables'}

\texttt{Variables declare}

\texttt{'# Initial'}

\texttt{Initial declare}

\texttt{'# Protocol description'}

\texttt{Protocol declare}

\texttt{'# System'}

\texttt{System declare}

\texttt{('# Intruder')}
('"Verification"

Verification declare)?

A.2 Declaration section

Variables declare ::= 'Agents:' List Id ';'

('Servers:' List Id ';')?

('Nones:' List Id ';')?

('Public keys:' List Id ';')?

('Server keys:' List Id ';')?

('Signature keys:' List signaturekeys ';')?

('Inverse keys:' List inversekeys ';')?

('Constants:' List Id ';')?

('Functions:' List Id ';')?

List Id ::= Id

| Id, List Id

List serverkeys ::= '( Id ', Id ')'

| '( Id ', Id ')', List serverkeys

List signaturekeys ::= '( Id ', Id ')'  

| '( Id ', Id ')' , List signaturekeys
List inversekeys ::= '(' Id ',' Id ')' | '(' Id ',' Id ')' ',' List inversekeys

A.3 Initial knowledge section

Initial declare ::= Id 'knows' '{' knowledge '}' ';'
| Id 'knows' '{' knowledge '}' ';' Initial declare

knowledge ::= List Id

A.4 Protocol description section

Protocol declare ::= Id '->' Id ':' message ';' | Id '->' Id ':' message ';' Protocol declare

message ::= msg 'Wait' '[' number ',' number ']'
| msg 'timeout' '[' number ']' msg
| msg 'interrupt' '[' number ']' msg
| msg 'deadline' '[' number ']'
| msg

msg ::= msg1
| msg1 ',' msg
| '{' msg '}' Id
| msg '+' msg
| Id '(' msg ')' //function declare

msg1 ::= Id
| Id ',' msg1
A.5 Actual system section

System declare ::= 'Automatically' ';' |
| 'Initiator' ':' List Id ';' 'Responder' ':' List Id ';' ('Server' ':' List Id ;')?

A.6 Intruder section

Intruder declare ::= 'Intruder' ':' Id ('Intruder knowledge' ':' List Id)? ('Intruder ability' ':' List Id)?

A.7 Verification section

Verification declare ::= spec |
| temporal spec |
| spec,Verification declare |
| temporal spec,Verification declare

spec ::= ('Data secrecy:' list secrecy ';')? ('Authentication:' list auth ';')? ('Non repudiation:' list condition ';')? ('Anonymity:' list condition ';')? ('Fairness:' list condition ';')? ('Integrity:' Id ';')?

list secrecy ::= Id 'of' Id |
| Id 'of' Id ',' list secrecy

list condition ::= Id 'condition is' ':' '{' knowledge '}'
list auth ::= Id 'is authenticated with' Id
      | Id 'is authenticated with' Id ',', list auth

temporal spec ::= 'if' temp formula 'then' temp formula ';

temp formula ::= temp formula 'and' temp formula
      | temp formula 'or' temp formula
      | '(' temp formula ')'
      | temp formula 'before' temp formula
      | temp formula 'after' temp formula
      | temp formula 'eventually' temp formula
      | temp formula 'always' temp formula
      | temp event
      | '(' temp event ')' 'within' '[' number ']'

temp event ::= Id 'sends' message ( 'to' Id)?
      | Id 'receives' message ( 'from' Id)?

A.8 Basic definition
Identifier ::= letter (letter | digit)*
letter ::= 'a'..'z' | 'A'..'Z' | '_'
digit ::= '0'..'9'

[TOP]
3.10.2 3.10.2 SeVe Module Tutorial

In this section, we will give an example on Needham Schroeder protocol.

3.10.2.1 3.10.2.1 Needham Schroeder Protocol

This protocol involves two agents A and B.

Message1 : A -> B : {A,NA}pkB

Message2 : B -> A : {NA,NB}pkA

Message3 : A -> B : {NB}pkB

These lines describe a correct execution of one session of the protocol. Each line of the protocol corresponds to the emission of a message by an agent (A for the first line) and a reception of this message by another agent (B for the first line).

In line 1, the agent A is the initiator of the session. Agent B is the responder. Agent A sends B her identity and a freshly generated nonce NA, both encrypted using the public key of B, pkB. Agent B receives the message, decrypts it using his secret key to obtain the identity of the initiator and the nonce NA.

In line 2, B sends back to A a message containing the nonce NA that B just received and a freshly generated nonce NB. Both are encrypted using the public key of A, pkA. The initiator A receives the message and decrypts it, A verifies that the first nonce corresponds to the nonce she sent B in line 1 and obtains nonce NB.

In line 3, A sends B the nonce NB she just received encrypted with the public key of B. B receives the message and decrypts it. Then B checks that the received nonce corresponds to NB.

This protocol is declared in SeVe language as:

#Variables

    Agents: a,b;
Nonces: na, nb;

Public_keys: \{ka,a\}, \{kb,b\};

#Initial

\text{a} \text{ knows} \{na,ka\};

\text{b} \text{ knows} \{nb,kb\};

#Protocol_description

\text{a} \rightarrow \text{b} : \{a,na\}kb;

\text{b} \rightarrow \text{a} : \{na,nb\}ka;

\text{a} \rightarrow \text{b} : \{nb\}kb;

#System

Initiator: Alice;

Responder: Bob;

#Intruder

Intruder:

//Intruder\_knowledge: {};

#Verification

Data\_secrecy: \{na\} \text{ of} Alice;

Agent\_authentication: \{Alice \text{ is\_authenticated\_with} Bob \text{ using} \{a\}\};

\[TOP\]

\textbf{3.11 3.11 Web Service (WS) Module (obsolete)}

The Web Services paradigm promises to enable rich, dynamic, and flexible interoperability of highly heterogeneous and distributed web-based platform. In recent years, many Web Service composition languages have been proposed. There are two different viewpoints, and correspondingly two terms, in the area of Web Service composition. Web Service choreography is usually referred to Web Service specification which describes collaboration protocols of cooperating Web Service participants from a global view. An example is WS-CDL (Web Service Choreography Description Language). Web Service orchestration refers to Web Service descriptions which take a local view. That is, an orchestration describes collaboration of the Web Services in predefined patterns based on local decision about their interaction with one another at the message/execution level. A representative is (a main part of) WS-BPEL (Web
Service Business Process Execution Language), which models business process by specifying the workflows of carrying out business transactions.

Informally speaking, a choreography may be viewed as a contract among multiple cooperations, i.e., a specification of requirements (which may not be executable). An orchestration is the composition of concrete services provided by each cooperation which realizes the contract. The distinction between choreography and orchestration resembles the well studied distinction between sequence diagrams (which describes inter-object system interactions) and state machines (which may be used to describe intra-object state transitions). Likewise, there are two important issues to be solved. If both the choreography and orchestration are given, it is important to guarantee that the two views are consistent, by showing that the orchestration (i.e., implementation) conforms to the choreography (i.e., specification). Given only a choreography, it is necessary to check whether it is implementable and synthesize a prototype implementation (if possible). Web Service Module offers practical solution to both issues, which is self-containing environment for analyzing Web Services (abstractions). The user interface of Web Service Module supports user-friendly editing, simulating and verifying of Web Services. In particular, conformance is verified by showing weak simulation relationship using an on-the-fly model checking algorithm. A scalable lightweight approach is used to solve the synthesis problem.
Figure above shows the workflow of Web Service Module. Given a choreography or an orchestration, a preprocessing component is used to extract relevant information and build a simplified model, in intermediate languages which are designed to capture behaviors of choreography and orchestration. The reason for supporting intermediate languages is twofold. Firstly, heavy languages like WS-CDL or WS-BPEL are designed for machine consumption and therefore are lengthy and complicated in structure. Our intermediate languages focus on the interactive behavioral aspect. Both languages (for choreography and orchestration) have their own parser, compiler as well as formal operational semantics. Therefore, users can quickly write a Web Service model and analyze it using our visualized simulator, verifier and synthesizer. The languages are developed based on previous works of formal models for WS-CDL and WS-BPEL (See next section for details). They cover all main features like synchronous/asynchronous message passing, channel passing, process forking, parallel composition, shared variables, etc. Secondly, Web Service languages are evolving rapidly. Being based an intermediate language gives us opportunity to quickly cope with new syntaxes or features (by tuning the preprocessing component).
Given a choreography, Web Service Module can statically analyze whether it is well-formed, for instance whether it can be implemented in a distributed setting without introducing unexpected behaviors. If the choreography is not implementable, Web Service Module generates an implementable one, by injecting extra message passing into the choreography. Otherwise, Web Service Module may be used to automatically generate a prototype orchestration (which may later be refined and translated to a WS-BPEL document). If an orchestration is provided, the conformance checker allows users to verify whether the orchestration is valid with respect to the choreography.

Currently Web Service Module is still in beta stage. We are actively developing it now. Any suggestion or feedback is extremely welcome.

3.11.1 Language Reference

In this section, we present modeling languages which are expressive enough to capture all core features of Web Service choreography and orchestration. There are two reasons for introducing intermediate modeling languages for Web Services. First, heavy languages like WS-CDL or WS-BPEL are designed for machine consumption and therefore are lengthy and complicated in structure. Moreover, there are mismatches between WS-CDL and WS-BPEL. For instance, WS-CDL allows channel passing whereas WS-BPEL does not. The intermediate languages focus on the interactive behavioral aspect. We develop parsers, compilers as well as formal operational semantics for the intermediate languages so that users can quickly write a Web service model and analyze it, using our visualized simulator, verifier and synthesizer. The languages are developed based on previous work of formal models for WS-CDL and WS-BPEL. They cover all main features like synchronous/asynchronous message passing, channel passing, process forking, parallel composition, shared variables, etc. In addition, based on the intermediate languages and their semantic models (namely, labeled transition systems), our verification and synthesis approaches are not bound to one particular Web service language. This is important because Web Service
languages evolves rapidly. Being based on intermediate languages gives us opportunity to quickly cope with new syntaxes or features (e.g., by tuning the preprocessing component).

The language syntax structures are listed as follows. The complete grammar rules can be found in Section 3.11.1.5. In Web Service module, we assume each model can have maximum one choreography and orchestration.

3.11.1.1 Global Definitions

- Global Constants
- Asynchronous Channels
- Propositions

3.11.1.2 Web Service Choreography

- Stop
- Skip
- Service Invocation
- Channel Communication
- Assignment
- Sequential Composition
- Choice
- Conditional Choice
- Case
- Guarded Processes
- Interleaving
- Recursion

3.11.1.3 Web Service Orchestration

- Variables
- Stop
3.11.1.1 Global Definitions

Constants

A global constant is defined using the following syntax,

```
#define max 5;
```

`#define` is a keyword used for multiple purposes. Here it defines a global constant named `max`, which has the value 5. The semi-colon marks the end of the 'sentence'.
Note: the constant value can only be integer value (both positive and negative) and boolean value (true or false).

Service Channels

In WS module, service communication can be invoked between different roles. A service channel can be declared as follows.

```
channel c;
```

where `channel` is a key word for declaring channels only.

Propositions

In addition, the key word `#define` may be used to define propositions. For instance,

```
#define goal x == 0;
```

where `goal` is the name of the proposition and `x == 0` is what goal means. A proposition name is used in the same way as global constant is used. For instance, given the above definition, we may write the following,

```
if (goal) { P } else { Q };
```

which means if the value of `x` is 0 then do `P` else do `Q`. We remark that propositions are the basic elements of LTL formulae.

[TOP]

3.11.1.2 Web Service Choreography

A choreography consists of several processes. A choreography process is defined as an equation in the following syntax,

```
Chor chorName{...
```
• $Main() = Exp1$;
• $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = Exp2$;
• ...
• }

where $P$ is the process name, $x_1, ..., x_n$ is an optional list of process parameters and $Exp$ is a process expression. The process expression determines the computational logic of the process. A process without parameters is written either as $P()$ or $P$. A defined process may be referenced by its name (with the valuations of the parameters). Process referencing allows a flexible form of recursion. Inside a choreography, one of the process must have name "Main" with no parameter, which acts like the starting process of the choreography.

Each expression can be composed by using the following operators.

**Stop**

The deadlock process is written as follows,

    Stop

The process does absolutely nothing.

**Skip**

The process which terminates immediately is written as follows,

    Skip

The process terminates and then behaves exactly the same as $Stop$.

**Service Invocation**
In choreography, one role inside the service can invoke the service provided by another role. We assume that each role is associated with a set of local variables and there are no globally shared variables among roles. This is a reasonable assumption as each role (which is a service) may be realized in a remote computing device. One example of service invocation is the following:

channel B2S ; //The pre-established channel between the buyer and the seller

B2S(Buyer, Seller, {Bch}) -> Skip

The above states that role Buyer invokes a service provided by role Seller through channel B2S. {Bch} is a sequence of session channels which are created for this service invocation only. Notice that because the same service shall be available all the time, service channel B2S is reserved for service invocation only.

**Channel Communication**

Once the service channel is established between two roles, the two roles can communicate using the channel agreed in the service invocation. The following two example demonstrates the idea.

Bch(Buyer, Seller, QuoteRequest) -> Skip
Bch(Seller, Buyer, QuoteResponse.x) -> Skip

In the first example, Buyer sends a message QuoteRequest to Seller. In the second example, Seller sends a QuoteResponse to Buyer with the quotation value x. Variable x is associated with role Buyer and can be used inside the choreography afterwards as a variable of role Buyer.

**Assignment**

We support the update of the variables of a role. Without loss of generality, we always require that the variables constituting new value and the variable to be updated
must be associated with the same role. The following example demonstrated the usage of assignment.

\[ A2A(\text{TravelAgent}, \text{AmericanAirlines}, \{\text{ch}\}) \rightarrow \text{ch(AmericanAirlines, TravelAgent, FlightResponseAA.price)} \rightarrow (\text{TravelAgent.p = price * 1.1}) \rightarrow \text{Skip} \]

\text{TravelAgent} invokes the service provided by \text{AmericanAirlines}, then \text{AmericanAirlines} gives a flight quotation to \text{TravelAgent} stored in variable \text{price}. \text{TravelAgent} needs to calculate the price displayed to the client by adding profits. Both variable \text{p} and \text{price} are the variables of role \text{TravelAgent}.

**Sequential composition**

A sequential composition is written as,

\[ P; Q \]

where \( P \) and \( Q \) are processes. In this process, \( P \) starts first and \( Q \) starts only when \( P \) has finished.

**Choice**

In Web Service module, we have only external choice, which is made by the environment, e.g., the observation of a visible event or the valuation of the variables. An choice is written as follows,

\[ P \| Q \]

The choice operator \( \| \) states that either \( P \) or \( Q \) may execute. If \( P \) performs a visible event first, then \( P \) takes control. Otherwise, \( Q \) takes control.

The generalized form of choice is written as,

\[ \| x:\{1..n\}@ P(x) \quad - \text{which is equivalent to} \quad P(1) \| ... \| P(n) \]
Conditional Choice

A choice may depend on a Boolean expression which in turn depends on the valuations of the variables. In PAT, we support the classic if-then-else as follows,

\[
\text{if } (\text{cond}) \{ P \} \text{ else } \{ Q \}
\]

where \text{cond} is a Boolean formula. If \text{cond} evaluates to be true, then \text{P} executes, otherwise \text{Q} executes. Notice that the else-part is optional. The process \text{if(false)} \{\text{P}\} behaves exactly as process \text{Skip}.

Case

A generalized form of conditional choice is written as,

\[
\text{case } \{ \\
\quad \text{cond1}: \text{P1} \\
\quad \text{cond2}: \text{P2} \\
\quad \text{default}: \text{P} \\
\} 
\]

where \text{case} is a key word and \text{cond1}, \text{cond2} are Boolean expressions. if \text{cond1} is true, then \text{P1} executes. Otherwise, if \text{cond2} is true, then \text{P2}. And if \text{cond1} and \text{cond2} are both false, then \text{P} executes by default. The condition is evaluated one by one until a true one is found. In case no condition is true, the \text{default} process will be executed.

Guarded process

A guarded process only executes when its guard condition is satisfied. In PAT, a guard process is written as follows,

\[
[\text{cond}] \text{P}
\]
where \( cond \) is a Boolean formula and \( P \) is a process. If \( cond \) is true, \( P \) executes. Notice that different from conditional choice, if \( cond \) is false, the whole process will wait until \( cond \) is true and then \( P \) executes.

**Interleaving**

Two processes which run concurrently without barrier synchronization written as,

\[
P ||| Q
\]

where ||| denotes interleaving. Both \( P \) and \( Q \) may perform their local actions without referring to each other. Notice that \( P \) and \( Q \) can still communicate via shared variables or channels. The generalized form of interleaving is written as,

\[
||| x: \{0..n\} @ P(x)
\]

**Recursion**

Recursion is achieved through process referencing flexibly. The following process contains mutual recursion.

- \( P() = a \rightarrow Q(); \)
- \( Q() = b \rightarrow P(); \)
- \( System() = P() || Q(); \)

It is straightforward to use process reference to realize common iterative procedures. For instance, the following process behaves exactly as \( while (cond) \{ P(); \} \);

\[
Q() = if (cond) \{ P(); Q(); \};
\]

[TOP]

3.11.1.3 3.11.1.3 Web Service Orchestration
An orchestration is an executable model, which consists of several roles. Each role consists of several processes. A role's process is defined as an equation in the following syntax. Inside a role, one of the process must have name "Main" with no parameter, which acts like the starting process of the role. An orchestration behaves as the interleave execution of its roles.

- \textit{Orch} \textit{orchName} {
  - \textit{Role} \textit{roleName}{
    - \textit{Main}() = \textit{Exp1};
    - ...
  }
  - \textit{Role} \textit{roleName1}{
    - ...
  }
}

1 Variables

Each role can have local variables used inside the role. A variable is defined using the following syntax,

\begin{verbatim}
var knight = 0;
\end{verbatim}

where \textit{var} is a keyword for defining a variable and \textit{knight} is the variable name. Initially, \textit{knight} has the value 0. Semi-colon is used to mark the end of the 'sentence' as above. We remark the input language of PAT is weakly typed and therefore no typing information is required when declaring a variable. Cast between incompatible types may result in a run-time exception. A fixed-size array may be defined as follows,

\begin{verbatim}
var board = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];
\end{verbatim}
where `board` is the array name and its initial value is specified as the sequence, e.g., `board[0] = 3`. The following defines an array of size 3.

```plaintext
var leader[3];
```

All elements in the array are initialized to be 0.

**Note for multi-dimentional array**: currently only one dimentional array is supported for the performance reason. However, multi-dimentional arrays can be easily simulated using one dimentional array. For example, a 4*3 two dimentional array `[[1,1,1], [2,2,2], [3,3,3], [4,4,4]]` can be represented easily using a simply array `[1,1,1,2,2,2,3,3,3,4,4,4]`. You only need to calculate index carefully to access the correct elements.

**Variable range specification**: users can provide the range of the variables/arrays explicitly by giving lower bound or upper bound or both. In this way, the model checker and simulator can report the out-of-range violation of the variable values to help users to monitor the variable values. The syntax of specifying range values are demonstrated as follows.

- `var knight : {0..} = 0;`
- `var board : {0..10} = [3, 5, 6, 0, 2, 7, 8, 4, 1];`
- `var leader[N] : {..N-1};` //where N is a constant defined.

### 2 Processes

Each role expression can be composed by using the following operators.

**Stop**

The deadlock process is written as follows,

```plaintext
Stop
```

The process does absolutely nothing.
The process which terminates immediately is written as follows,

```
   Skip
```

The process terminates and then behaves exactly the same as \textit{Stop}.

\textbf{Service Invoking/Invoked}

In orchestration, one role inside the service can invoke the service provided by another role. One example of service invoking/Invoked is the following:

- \textit{channel} \textbf{B2S} ; //The pre-established channel between the buyer and the seller
- \textit{Role} \textbf{Buyer} {
  - \textit{Main} () = \textbf{B2S}\{\textit{Bch}\} -> \textbf{Bch}\textbf{?}\textbf{Ack} -> \textbf{Skip};
  - }
  - {
    - \textit{Main} = \textbf{B2S}\{\textit{ch}\} -> \textbf{ch}\textbf{!}\textbf{Ack} -> \textbf{Session}();
    - }

The above states that role \textit{Buyer} invokes a service provided by role \textit{Seller} through channel \textbf{B2S}. \{\textit{Bch}\} is a sequence of session channels which are created for this service invocation only. Note that the set of channel names in service invoking (e.g., \{\textit{Bch}\}) needs not to be same as the set in service invoked (e.g., \{\textit{ch}\}). Each pair of service invoking and service invoked are treated as two actions in PAT, which means the service invocation is an asynchronous event.

\textbf{Channel Input/Output}
Once the service channel is established between two roles, the two roles can communicate using the channels agreed in the service invocation. The following example demonstrates the idea.

- **channel** B2S ; //The pre-established channel between the buyer and the seller

- **Role Buyer**
  - Main () = B2S!{Bch} -> Bch?Ack.x -> Skip;

- **Role Seller**
  - Main = B2S?{ch} -> ch!Ack.100 -> Session();

In the first example, Seller output a message Ack to Buyer using channel ch, and Buyer input the Ack via this channel. Channel messages can be companied with a list of values. The values should be stored in the variables of the channel input.

**Assignment**

We support the update of the variables of a role. Without loss of generality, we always require that the variables constituting new value and the variable to be updated must be associated with the same role. The following example demonstrated the usage of assignment.

- **Role Buyer**
  - var counter = 0;
  - Main () = (counter = 0) -> B2S!{Bch1} -> Bch1?Ack -> Session();
  - Session() = Bch1!QuoteRequest -> (counter = counter+1) -> Skip;

**Sequential composition**

A sequential composition is written as,
\[ P; Q \]

where \( P \) and \( Q \) are processes. In this process, \( P \) starts first and \( Q \) starts only when \( P \) has finished.

**Choice**

In Web Service module, we have only external choice, which is made by the environment, e.g., the observation of a visible event or the valuation of the variables. An choice is written as follows,

\[ P \parallel Q \]

The choice operator \( \parallel \) states that either \( P \) or \( Q \) may execute. If \( P \) performs a visible event first, then \( P \) takes control. Otherwise, \( Q \) takes control.

The generalized form of choice is written as,

\[ \parallel x: \{1..n\} @ P(x) \]

- which is equivalent to \( P(1) \parallel ... \parallel P(n) \)

**Conditional Choice**

A choice may depend on a Boolean expression which in turn depends on the valuations of the variables. In PAT, we support the classic if-then-else as follows,

\[ \text{if } \text{(cond)} \{ P \} \text{ else } \{ Q \} \]

where \( \text{cond} \) is a Boolean formula. If \( \text{cond} \) evaluates to true, the \( P \) executes, otherwise \( Q \) executes. Notice that the else-part is optional. The process \( \text{if} (false) \{ P \} \) behaves exactly as process \( \text{Skip} \).

**Case**

A generalized form of conditional choice is written as,
where case is a key word and cond1, cond2 are Boolean expressions. If cond1 is true, then P1 executes. Otherwise, if cond2 is true, then P2. And if cond1 and cond2 are both false, then P executes by default. The condition is evaluated one by one until a true one is found. In case no condition is true, the default process will be executed.

Guarded process

A guarded process only executes when its guard condition is satisfied. In PAT, a guard process is written as follows,

\[ \text{[cond]} P \]

where cond is a Boolean formula and P is a process. If cond is true, P executes. Notice that different from conditional choice, if cond is false, the whole process will wait until cond is true and then P executes.

Interleaving

Two processes which run concurrently without barrier synchronization written as,

\[ P ||| Q \]

where ||| denotes interleaving. Both P and Q may perform their local actions without referring to each other. Notice that P and Q can still communicate via shared variables or channels. The generalized form of interleaving is written as,

\[ ||| x:0..n \@ P(x) \]
Recursion

Recursion is achieved through process referencing flexibly. The following process contains mutual recursion.

- \( P() = a \rightarrow Q() \);
- \( Q() = b \rightarrow P() \);
- \( System() = P() \parallel Q() \);

It is straightforward to use process reference to realize common iterative procedures. For instance, the following process behaves exactly as \( \text{while } (\text{cond}) \{ P() \} \);

\[
Q() = \text{if } (\text{cond}) \{ P(); Q() \};
\]

3.11.1.4 Assertions

An assertion is a query about the system behaviors. In PAT, we support a (still increasing) number of different assertions. We support the full set of Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) as well as conformance relationship between orchestration and choreography. Since choreography is not executable, all assertions shall be imposed on orchestration only, except for conformance test.

Deadlock-freeness

Given \( P() \) as an orchestration, the following assertion asks whether \( P() \) is deadlock-free or not.

\[
\#\text{assert } P() \text{ deadlockfree};
\]

where both \text{assert} and \text{deadlockfree} are reserved keywords. PAT’s model checker performs a Depth-First-Search algorithm to repeatedly explore unvisited states until a
deadlock state (i.e., a state with no further move) is found or all states have been visited.

**Reachability**

Given \( P(\) \) as an orchestration, the following assertion asks whether \( P(\) \) can reach a state at which some given condition is satisfied.

\[
\text{#assert } P() \text{ reaches } \text{cond};
\]

where both \text{assert} and \text{reaches} are reserved key words and \text{cond} is a proposition defined as a global definition. For instance, the following asks whether \( P(\) \) can reach a state at which \( x \) is negative.

- \text{var } x = 0;
- \text{#define goal } x < 0;
- \( P() = \text{add}\{x = x + 1;\} \rightarrow P() \, \text{[]} \, \text{minus}\{x = x - 1;\} \rightarrow P()\);
- \text{#assert } P() \text{ reaches } \text{goal};

In order to tell whether the assertion is true or not, PAT's model checker performs a depth-first-search algorithm to repeatedly explore unvisited states until a state at which the condition is true is found or all states have been visited.

**LTL**

In PAT, we support the full set of LTL syntax. Given an orchestration \( P(\) \), the following assertion asks whether \( P(\) \) satisfies the LTL formula.

\[
\text{#assert } P() \models F;
\]

where \( F \) is an LTL formula whose syntax is defined as the following rules,

\[
F = e | \text{prop} | [\[] F | <> F | X F | F1 U F2
\]
where e is an event, prop is a pre-defined proposition, [] reads as "always", <> reads as "eventually", X reads as "next" and U reads as "until". Informally, the assertion is true if and only if every execution of the system satisfies the formula. Given an LTL formula, PAT's model checker firstly invokes a procedure to generate a Buchi automaton which is equivalent to the negation of the formula. Then, the Buchi automaton is composed of the internal model of $P()$ so as to determine whether the formula is true for all system executions or not. Refer to [SUNLDP09] for details. For instance, the following asks whether the philosopher can always eventually eat or not (i.e., non-starvation).

```assert```
Phil() |= []<>eat;
```assert```

**Note:** event e can be component event like eat.0. e can also be channel event like "c!3" or "c?19". Double quotation marks are needed when writing channel events due to the special characters ! and ?.

```assert```
Phil() |= []<> eat.0 && "c!3";
```assert```

**Note:** e when two or more X are used together, leave a space between them. XX will be mis-recognized as a proposition.

**Conformance**

In PAT, we support FDR's approach for checking whether an implementation satisfies a specification or not. That is, by the notion of refinement or equivalence. Different from LTL assertions, an assertion for refinement compares behaviors of a given process as a whole with another process, e.g., whether there is a subset relationship.

```assert```
Orc() refines Chor() //we test whether orchestration Orc conforms to choreography Chor.
PAT's model checker invokes a reachability analysis procedure to repeatedly explore the (synchronization) product of $P()$ and $Q()$ to search for a state at which the refinement relationship does not hold.

3.11.1.5 3.11.1.5 Grammar Rules

specification
  : (specBody)*

specBody
  : define
    | channel
    | choreography
    | orchestration
    | assertion

choreography
  : 'Chor' ID '{' definition+ '}'

orchestration
  : 'Orch' ID '{' role+ '}'

role
  : 'Role' ID ('[ INT | "*" ]')? '{' roleBody* '}' //INT means the number of the roles, * mean infinite number of roles

roleBody
  : letDefinition
    | definition

letDefinition
  : 'var' ID variableRange? ('=' expression)? ';
  | 'var' ID variableRange? '=' recordExpression ';
  | 'var' ID('[ expression ']')+ variableRange? ('=' recordExpression)? '; //multi-dimensional array is supported

variableRange
  : ': '{ additiveExpression? '..' additiveExpression? '}'
recordExpression
: ['recordElement (', recordElement)* ']
;
recordElement
: e1=expression('(' e2=expression ')')?//e2 means the number of e1, by default it's 1
| e1=expression'. ' e2=expression // e1 to e2 gives a range of constants
;
define
: '# define' ID '-'? INT ';
| '# define' ID ('true' | 'false') ';
| 'enum' '{' ID (', ID)* '}' ';
| '# define' ID conditionalOrExpression ';
;
channel
: 'channel' ID additiveExpression? ';
;
assertion
: '# assert' ID
| ( '=' ( '(' | ') ' | ',' | '<>' | ID | STRING | '!' | '&&' | '||' | '<-' | '<->' | '\' | '/\' | '/\' | ' ' | INT+ )
| 'deadlockfree'
| 'reaches' ID
| 'refines' ID
)
| ';
;
statement
: block
| localVariableDeclaration
| ifExpression
| whileExpression
| expression ';
| ';
;
// local variable that can be used in the block
localVariableDeclaration
: 'var' ID ('=' expression)? ';
| 'var' ID '=' recordExpression ';
;
expression
: conditionalOrExpression ('=' expression)?
;
conditionalOrExpression
  : conditionalAndExpression ( '||' conditionalAndExpression )*

conditionalAndExpression
  : equalityExpression ( '&&' equalityExpression )*

equalityExpression
  : relationalExpression ( '=='|'!='|'<='|'>='|'>=' relationalExpression) *

relationalExpression
  : additiveExpression ( '<'|'>'|'='|'>=' additiveExpression) *

additiveExpression
  : multiplicativeExpression ( '+'|'-' multiplicativeExpression ) *

multiplicativeExpression
  : unaryExpression ( '*'|'/'|'%' unaryExpression ) *

unaryExpression
  : '+' unaryExpression
  | '-' unaryExpression
  | '!' unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus
  | unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus

unaryExpressionNotPlusMinus
  : ID ( '[' conditionalOrExpression ']' )?
  | ID '.' ID
  | INT
  | 'true'
  | 'false'
  | '(' conditionalOrExpression ')' 
  | 'call' '(' ID ',' conditionalOrExpression (',' conditionalOrExpression)? ')' 

ifExpression
  : 'if' '(' expression ')' statement ( 'else' statement )?

whileExpression
  : 'while' '(' expression ')' statement

recordExpression
  : [' expression (',' expression)* '] 

definition
: ID ('( ID (', ID *)? ')')? '=' interleaveExpr ';

// these rules below give the precedence of the operators, the least one is interleave.
interleaveExpr
    : externalChoiceExpr ('|||' externalChoiceExpr+) *
    | '|||' (paralDef (';' paralDef *)) '@' interleaveExpr

paralDef
    : ID ':' '{' additiveExpression (',', additiveExpression)* '}'
    | ID ':' '{' additiveExpression '..' additiveExpression '}'

externalChoiceExpr
    : sequentialExpr ('[' sequentialExpr)*
    | '[' (paralDef (';' paralDef *)) '@' interleaveExpr

sequentialExpr
    : guardExpr (',', guardExpr)*

guardExpr
    : '[' conditionalOrExpression ']' assignmentExpr
    | assignmentExpr

assignmentExpr
    : block '->' assignmentExpr
    | channelCommunicationExpr

channelCommunicationExpr
    : name=ID ('caller=ID ',' callee=ID ',' msg=ID (',', additiveExpression)* ')'->'
    | serviceInvocationExpr

serviceInvocationExpr
    : name=ID ('caller=ID ',' callee=ID ',' '{' (conditionalOrExpression (',',
    conditionalOrExpression *))'? '}') '->' assignmentExpr
    | channelExpr

channelExpr
    : name=ID '!' msg=ID (',', conditionalOrExpression)* '->' assignmentExpr
    | name=ID '?' msg=ID (',', conditionalOrExpression)* '->' assignmentExpr
    | serviceInvokingExpr
In this section, we illustrate the Web Service module's modeling language using a number of classic examples.
Online Shopping Example

3.11.2.1 Online Shopping Example

In this example, buyer communicates with the seller through the service channel B2S to invoke its service, while channel Bch is a private channel for the following session only. In the Session, the buyer firstly sends a message QuoteRequest through channel Bch to the seller. The seller responds with some quotation value x, which is a variable.

First of all, we need to declare the service channels to be used in the choreography or orchestration. If a service channel is used without declaration, it will fail the parser.

- channel B2S ; //The pre-established channel between the buyer and the seller
- channel S2H ; //The pre-established channel between the seller and the shipper

The following is the specification of choreography.

Chor cBuySell {

1. Main() = B2S(Buyer, Seller, {Bch}) -> Bch(Seller, Buyer, Ack) -> Session();
2. Session() = Bch(Buyer, Seller, QuoteRequest) ->
3. Bch(Seller, Buyer, QuoteResponse.x) ->
4. if (x <= 1000) {
5. Bch(Buyer, Seller, QuoteAccept) ->
6. Bch(Seller, Buyer, OrderConfirmation) ->
7. S2H(Seller, Shipper, {Bch, Sch}) ->
8. (Sch(Shipper, Buyer, DeliveryDetails.y) -> Stop ||
   Bch(Shipper, Seller, DeliveryDetails.z) -> Stop)
9. } else {

10. \[ Bch(Buyer, Seller, QuoteReject) \rightarrow Session() \] \[ Session() \rightarrow Stop \]

11. \} 

The choreography coordinates three roles (i.e., Buyer, Seller and Shipper) to complete a business transaction. At line 1, the Buyer communicates with the Seller through service channel B2S to invoke its service. Channel Bch which is sent along the service invocation is to be used as a session channel for this session only. In the Session, the Buyer firstly sends a message QuoteRequest to the Seller through channel Bch. At line 3, the Seller responds with some quotation value x, which is a variable. Notice that in choreography, the value of x may be left unspecified at this point. At line 7, the Seller sends a message through the service channel S2H to invoke a shipping service. Notice that the channel Bch is passed onto the Shipper so that the shipper may contact the Buyer directly. At line 8, the Shipper sends delivery details to the Buyer and Seller through the respective channels. The rest is self-explanatory.

The following is the implementation of the orchestration. Each role is implemented as a separate component. Each component contains variable declarations (optional) and process definitions. We assume that the process Main defines the computational logic of the role after initialization. We remark that the orchestration generally contains more details than the choreography, e.g., the variable counter in Buyer constraints the number of attempts the buyer would try before giving up.

- Orch oBuySell {
  - Role Buyer {
    - var counter = 0;
    - Main () = (counter = 0) \rightarrow B2S!{Bch1} \rightarrow Bch1?Ack \rightarrow Session();
    - Session() = Bch1!QuoteRequest \rightarrow (counter = counter+1) \rightarrow Bch1?QuoteResponse.x \rightarrow
if (x <= 1000) {
    Bch1!QuoteAccept ->
    Bch1?OrderConfirmation ->
    Bch1?DeliveryDetails.y -> Stop
} else {
    if (counter <= 3) {
        Bch1!QuoteReject -> Session()
    } else {
        Bch1!Terminate -> Main
    }
};
}

Role Seller[1] { // the size of the role gives the number of threads that can be
forked for the service invocations. If this number is bigger, the more number of
service can be invoked concurrently.

    var x = 1200; // the quotation
    Main = B2S?{ch} -> ch!Ack -> Session();

    Session() = ch?QuoteRequest ->
        ch!QuoteResponse.x ->
            (ch?QuoteAccept ->
                ch!OrderConfirmation ->
                S2H!{ch,Sch} ->
                Sch?DeliveryDetails.y -> Stop
            )[]
        (ch?QuoteReject -> Session() [] ch?Terminate -> Stop)
    ];
};
• **Role** Shipper[1] {
  • var detail = 2010; //the delivery detail
  • Main() = S2H?{ch1,ch2} ->
    (ch1!DelieryDetails.detail -> Stop ||| ch2!DelieryDetails.detail -> Stop);
  • }
}

Some properties that can be checked are the following:

• #assert oBuySell deadlockfree;
• #assert oBuySell refines cBuySell;
• #define inv Buyer1.counter <= 4;
• #assert oBuySell |= []inv;
• #assert oBuySell |= []<> inv;
• #assert oBuySell reaches inv;

[TOP]

3.12 3.12 UML into PAT

The Unified Modeling Language (UML) has been known as the de facto standard of software modeling language. However, the deficiency of precise and complete semantics, especially for dynamic behavior, impedes the ability to guarantee the correctness of UML models, which has raised many concerns on integrating formal methods with the verification.

UML state machines are used to describe the behavior and interaction of software components. It depicts the various states that an object may be in and the transitions between those states. We provide a translation approach from state machines to CSP#, so as to perform simulation and verification using PAT.

This section will present a short tutorial on analyzing UML state machines using PAT.
3.12.1 ATM Example

This part should help to give you a first taste of using PAT to analyze UML state machines by leading you through a simple example which is picked from [UMLGuide] and included in PAT.

The input is a UML specification which has been formatted using the XML Metadata Interchange (XMI) syntax, which is the Object Management Group standard of exchanging UML diagrams. From this input, a corresponding CSP# specification is automatically generated. The following is the basic description of a simplified ATM system as the following figure shows. This system might be in one of three basic states: *Idle* (waiting for customer interaction), *Active* (handling a customer's transaction), and *Maintenance* (perhaps having its cash store replenished). While *Active*, the behavior of the ATM follows a simple path: Validate the customer, select a transaction, process the transaction, and then print a receipt. After printing, the ATM returns to the *Idle* state. These stages of behavior are represented as the states *Validating, Selecting, Processing, and Printing.*
In order to analyze the above UML state machine into CSP#, you may click "Import" in the "File" menu to include its XMI file. Then you will get the translated CSP# model as the following shows:

```csp#
//====================Global Variable Definitions====================
var more = false;

//====================Process Definitions====================
System() = StateMachine_0();
StateMachine_0() = Initial_0();
Initial_0() = (From_Initial_0_to_Idle_Transition_0 -> Idle());
Idle() = ((cardInserted -> Active(0)) \[ (maintain -> Maintenance()) ];
Maintenance() = (finish -> Idle());
Active(i) = (readCard -> ActiveRegion_0(i));
```
ActiveRegion_0(i)= case { (i == 1):Validating() (i == 2):Selecting() (i == 3):Processing() (i == 4):Printing() true:Initial_1()};

Initial_1()= (From_Initial_0_to_Validating_Transition_0->Validating());

Validating()= (From_Validating_to_Selecting_Transition_0->Selecting());

Selecting()= (From_Selecting_to_Processing_Transition_0->Processing());

Processing()=((From_Processing_to_Selecting_Transition_0->(more]Selecting()))(From_Processing_to_Printing_Transition_0->Printing()));

Printing()= atomic{(From_Printing_to_Idle_Transition_0-> atomic{(ejectCard->Skip); Idle()});

Interested readers can refer to [ZHANGL10] for the detailed translation schemes. After finishing importing, the user can use the simulation and verification functions for CSP# models to analyze and verify state machines.

4. 4 Special Features

In this section, we explain some special features of PAT compared with other existing tools, which make PAT unique.

Special features including fairness, concerned with a fair resolution of non-determinism, is often necessary to prove liveness properties. We support several kinds of fairness regrading to event/process levels as well as weak/strong fairness to cater for different requirements. Please refer to our papers [SUNLDP09] for details.

Parallel verification, which makes use of today's popular multi-core architecture of computers, provides efficient approaches to solve problems under sequential
algorithms as well as a solution to integrate fairness with existing parallel model checking algorithms. Detailed information are introduced in our paper [LIUSD09].

**Verification of Infinite Systems**, we use the process abstract counter techniques to group infinitely many similar processes together and check their properties as an abstracted process group, instead of checking satisfiability of each process which makes the problem undecidable. A novel technique for checking such systems under fairness, against Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) formulae is also proposed in our paper that checking properties under fairness is always essential. For detailed information, please refer to [SUNLRLD09].

**Verification of Linearizability**, linearizability is one of the critical correctness criteria for shared objects. Operations on the shared objects without linearizability may cause system to be inconsistent which will bring in errors even disasters. Existing methods to check linearizability require users to have special knowledge of linearization points and cannot be automatic. We come up a new method to check linearizability based on refinement relations which overcome these drawbacks. Please refer to our paper [LIUWLS09] for details.

All of these topics are parts of our publications.

[TOP]

### 4.1 4.1 Fairness

In the area of system/software verification, liveness means something good must eventually happen. A counterexample to a liveness property (against a finite state system) is typically a loop (or a deadlock state, which is viewed as a trivial loop) during which the good thing never occurs. **Fairness**, which is concerned with a fair resolution of non determinism, is often necessary to prove liveness properties. Fairness is an abstraction of the fair scheduler (e.g., the random scheduler is a rather strong fair scheduler) in a multi-threaded programming environment or the relative speed of the
processor in distributed systems. Without fairness, verification of liveness properties often produces unrealistic loops during which one process or event is infinitely ignored by the scheduler or one processor is infinitely faster than others. It is important to rule out those counterexamples and utilizes the computational resource to identify the real bugs. However, ruling out counterexample due to lack of different fairness systematically is non-trivial. It requires flexible specification of fairness as well as efficient verification with fairness. The LTL model checking algorithm in PAT is designed to handle a variety of fairness constraints efficiently. This is partly motivated by recently developed population protocols, which only work under weak, strong local/global fairness. The other motivation is that the current practice of verification is deficient under fairness. In the following, we briefly introduce the different notions of fairness.

Models in PAT are interpreted as Labeled Transition Systems (LTSs) implicitly by defining a complete set of operational semantics. A Labeled Transition System is a 3-tuple \((S, \text{init}, T)\) where \(S\) is a set of states, init is an initial state and \(T\) is a labeled transition relation. Because fairness affects infinite not finite system behaviors, we focus on infinite system executions in the following. Finite behaviors are extended to infinite ones by appending infinite idling actions at the rear. Given an LTS \((S, \text{init}, T)\), an execution is an infinite sequence of alternating states and actions \(E = <s_0, a_0, s_1, a_1, ...>\) where \(s_0 = \text{init}\) and for each and every step conforms to the transition relation. Without fairness constraints, a system may behave freely as long as it starts with an initial state and conforms the transition relation. A fairness constraint restricts the set of system behaviors to only those fair ones. Verification under fairness is to verify whether fair executions satisfies a property. In the following, we review a variety of different fairness constraints and illustrates their differences using examples.

**Process-level Weak Fairness**

\(E\) satisfies process-level weak fairness if and only if, for every process \(P\), if \(P\) eventually becomes enabled forever in \(E\), then \(P\) is participated in \(a_i\) for infinitely many \(i\), i.e., \((<>[] P \text{ is enabled})\) implies (always eventually \(P\) is engaged).
Note: In above figure (a), the property $[]<>a$ is false under PWF is that the process $W$ may make progress infinitely (by repeatedly engaging in $b$) without ever engaging in event $a$. Alternatively, if the system is modeled using two processes as shown in figure (b), $[]<>a$ becomes true under PWF because both processes must make infinite progress and therefore both $a$ and $b$ must be engaged infinitely. In general, process-level fairness is related to the system structure.

Process-level Strong Fairness

$E$ satisfies process-level strong fairness if and only if, for every process $P$, if $P$ is infinitely often enabled, then $P$ participates in $a_i$ for infinitely many $i$, i.e., $([]<>P$ is enabled) implies $([]<>P$ is engaged).

Note: Given the LTS in above figure (a), the property $[]<>b$ is true that under PSF. As $b$ is infinitely often enabled, and thus, the system must engage in $b$ infinitely, make
this property $[]<>b$ true. As to figure (b), the property $[]<>c$ is false under PWF but true under PSF. The reason is that event $c$ is guarded by condition $x = 1$ and therefore is not repeatedly enabled.

**Strong Global Fairness**

E satisfies strong global fairness if and only if, for every $(s, a, s')$ in $T$, if $s = s_i$ for infinite many $i$, then $s_i = s$ and $a_i = a$ and $s_{(i+1)} = s'$ for infinite many $i$. Strong global fairness was suggested by Fischer and Jiang. It states that if a step (from $s$ to $s'$ by engaging in action $a$) can be taken infinitely often, then it must actually be taken infinitely often. Different from the above fairness notions, strong global fairness concerns about both actions and states, instead of actions only. It can be shown by a simple argument that strong global fairness is stronger than strong fairness. Strong global fairness requires that an infinitely enabled action must be taken infinitely often in all contexts, whereas event-level strong fairness only requires the enabled action to be taken in one context.

![Diagram](image)

**Note:** Above figure illustrates the difference with two examples. State 2 in Figure (a) may never be visited because all events are engaged infinitely often if the left loop is taken infinitely. As a result, property $[]<>$ state 2 might be false. However, under SGF, all states in (a) must be visited infinitely often and therefore $[]<>$ state 2 is true. Figure (b) illustrates their difference when there are non-determinism. Both transitions labeled $a$ must be taken infinitely under SGF, thus, property $[]<> b$ is true only under SGF.
Two different approaches for verification under fairness are supported in PAT, targeting different users. For ordinary users, one of the fairness notions may be chosen (in the Verification window, refer to the Verifier) and applied to the whole system. The model checking algorithm works by identifying the fair execution at a time and checks whether the desirable property is satisfied. Notice that unfair executions are considered unrealistic and therefore are not considered as counterexamples. Because of the fairness, nested depth-first-search is not feasible and therefore the algorithm is based on an improved version of Tarjan’s algorithm for identifying strongly connected components (details will be revealed in the section 4.2). We have successfully applied it to prove or disprove (with a counterexample) a range of systems where fairness is essential.

In general, however, system level fairness may sometimes be overwhelming. The worst case complexity is high and, worse, partial order reduction is not feasible for model checking under strong fairness or strong global fairness. A typical scenario for network protocols is that fairness constraints are associated with only messaging but not local actions. We thus support an alternative approach, which allows users annotate individual actions with fairness. Notice that this option is only for advanced users who know exactly which part of the system needs fairness constraints. Nevertheless this approach is much more flexible, i.e., different parts of the system may have different fairness. Furthermore, it allows partial order reduction over actions which are irrelevant to the fairness constraints, which allows us to handle much large systems. Thus, PAT supports an alternative (and more flexible) approach, which allow users to associate fairness to only part of the systems or associate different parts with different fairness constraints. Refer to language reference on how to the different kinds of annotation to be associated with individual actions.

4.2 Parallel Verification
Rapid development in hardware industry has brought the prevalence of multi-core systems with shared-memory, which enabled the speedup of various tasks by using parallel algorithms. The Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) model checking problem is one of the difficult problems to be parallelized or scaled up to multi-core. The research in parallelism of model checking fairness enhanced systems emits two challenges: Firstly, efficient parallel solution of many problems may result in dramatically different approaches from those to solve the same problems sequentially. Second, fairness, which is concerned with a fair resolution of non-determinism, is often important but expensive to be combined with existing parallel model checking algorithms.

In PAT, we successfully implemented a parallel model checking algorithm which is proposed in our paper [LIUSD09], with the capacity of parallel verification of systems with various fairness constraints in the multi-core architecture with share-memory. This algorithm is based on Tarjan's strongly connected components (SCC) detection algorithm, while extends it to parallel execution when multi-core environment is available. This algorithm is able to separate search space into smaller, independent searching spaces which naturally exclude each other, which allows the tasks of examining each smaller searching space to be scattered into free CPUs such that high concurrency and efficiency can be reached. Our parallel algorithm is quite acceptable with the linear(in the size of state space) time complexity.

As PAT integrated this parallel algorithm to achieve higher efficiency than sequential execution, so when you have a Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) formula to check, and happen to have a multi-core machine, you can simply check the "parallel verification" in the Verifier panel (refer to PAT Verifier, Parallel Verification) to use this parallel method. We also show the significant improvement by showing a comparison between checking a LTL property under certain fairness of the same model with and without choosing parallel execution.

Use the reader and writer's example (Descriptions refer to PAT Examples-> Classic Algorithms(CSP)) as an example. We choose number of processes to be 10 and the to-
be-checked LTL property as eventually always there is one and only one leader in the network, under process level strong fairness.

```csharp
#assert ReadersWriters() |= []<>error;
```

The result with 'parallel verification' is shown as follows:

```
********Verification Result********
The Assertion is NOT valid.
A counterexample is presented as follows.
<init -> (startwrite -> stopwrite -> startread -> startread -> startread ->
startread -> startread -> startread -> startread -> startread -> startread ->
startread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread ->
stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread -> stopread ->
startwrite)>
```

Verification Statistics for un-parallelled verification is:

- ******Verification Statistics******
- Visited States: 27
- Total Transitions: 52
- Time Used: 0.1031619s
- Estimated Memory Used: 59411.476KB

Verification Statistics for parallel verification is:

- ******Verification Statistics******
- Visited States: 27
- Total Transitions: 52
- Number of SCC found: 1
- Total SCC states: 22
- Average SCC Size: 22
- SCC Ratio: 0.81
- Time Used: 0.0155166s
This example shows that under such fairness restriction, the paralleled verification is faster than the un-paralleled one. You can also check other fairness properties like process level weak fairness, strong fairness etc. using paralleled method to speed-up verification.

4.3 4.3 Verification of Infinite Systems

Parameterized concurrent systems are characterized by the presence of a large (or even unbounded) number of behaviorally similar processes, and they are arising in distributed/concurrent systems and protocols. Such system represents an infinite family of instances, each instance being finite state. Property verification of a parameterized system involves verifying that every finite state instance of the system satisfies the property in question. In general, verification of parameterized systems is undecidable. A common state space abstraction for checking these systems involves not keeping track of process identifiers, but by grouping behaviorally similar processes. However, such an abstraction conflicts with the notion of fairness as process identifiers are lost in the abstraction, it is difficult to ensure fairness among the processes.

In our work [SUNLRLD09], we studied the problem of fair model checking with process counter abstraction. Imagine a bus protocol where a large / unbounded number of processors are contending for bus access. If we do not assume any fairness in the bus arbitration policy, we cannot prove the non-starvation property, that is, bus accesses by processors are eventually granted. In general, fairness constraints are often needed for verification of such liveness properties — ignoring fairness constraints results in unrealistic counterexamples (e.g. where a processor requesting for bus access is persistently ignored by the bus arbiter for example) being reported. These counterexamples are of no interest to the protocol designer. To systematically rule out such unrealistic counterexamples (which never happen in a real implementation), it is
important to verify the abstract system produced by our process counter abstraction under fairness.

We also propose a novel technique for model checking parameterized systems under fairness, against Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) formulae. Even without maintaining the process identifiers, our on-the-fly checking algorithm enforces fairness by keeping track of the local states from where actions are enabled / executed within an execution trace. Since parameterized systems contain process types with large number of behaviorally similar processes (whose behavior follows a local finite state machine or FSM), we group the processes based on which state of the local FSM they reside in. Thus, instead of saying “process 1 is in state \( s \), process 2 is in state \( t \) and process 3 is in state \( s \)” — we simply say “2 processes are in state \( s \) and 1 is in state \( t' \). Such an abstraction reduces the state space by exploiting powerful state space symmetry, as often evidenced in real-life concurrent systems such as a caches, memories, mutual exclusion protocols and network protocols. To achieve a finite state abstract system, we can adopt a cutoff number, so that any count greater than the cutoff number is abstracted to \( w \). This yields a finite state abstract system, model checking which we get a sound but incomplete verification procedure — any linear time Temporal Logic (LTL) property verified in the abstract system holds for all concrete finite-state instances of the system, but not vice-versa. We develop necessary theorems to prove the soundness of our technique, and also present efficient on-the-fly model checking algorithms. Please refer to our paper [SUNLRLD09] for more details such as theorem proving.

Here we take modeling the classic Readers and Writers Problem (Refer to PAT Examples-> Classic Algorithms-> Readers/ Writers Problem) as an example to show how the Process Counter Representation technique is applied in abstracting a system. This example shows an infinite system of unbounded readers and unbounded writers read and write a shared file, while system allows multiple read, but forbid read while writing, writing while writing and writing while read actions, i.e. write process should be exclusive.
First, we shall model the individual reader and writer process:

```
global variables: int counter = 0; bool writing = false;
```

![Diagram](image)

Then with showing a concrete system which has 2 readers and 2 writers, we remark that the abstract transition relation can be constructed without constructing the concrete transition relation, which is essential to avoid state space explosion.

```
A0: ((writing,false),(counter,0),(R0,2),(R1,0),(W0,2),(W1,0))
A1: ((writing,false),(counter,1),(R0,1),(R1,1),(W0,2),(W1,0))
A2: ((writing,false),(counter,2),(R0,0),(R1,2),(W0,2),(W1,0))
A3: ((writing,true),(counter,0),(R0,2),(R1,0),(W0,1),(W1,1))
```

Finally, we can obtain the abstract transition system for a reader/ writer system with unboundedly many processes by applying the aforementioned abstract transition relation. Here we assume the cutoff number is 1. The abstract system now has only finitely many states even if there are unbounded number of processes and, therefore, is subject to model checking.
The above three figures show how the process abstract technique applied in our PAT. You can model the reader/writer problem normally, and verify it with our method fast and smoothly.
4.4 4.4 Verification of Linearizability
Linearizability is an important correctness criterion for implementations of objects shared by concurrent processes, where each process performs a sequence of operations on the shared objects. Informally, a shared object is linearizable if each operation on the object can be understood as occurring instantaneously at some point, called the linearization point, between its invocation and its response, and its behavior at that point is consistent with the specification for the corresponding sequential execution of the operation. One common strategy for proving linearizability of an implementation (used in manual proofs or automatic verification) is to determine linearization points in the implementation of all operations and then show that these operations are executed atomically at the linearization points. However, for many concurrent algorithms, it is difficult or even impossible to statically determine all linearization points. Especially, it is extremely hard and trivial for this to be the users’ responsibility to specify such a linearization points.

While in our work, we proposed a new method- which is already integrated in PAT, for automatically checking linearizability based on refinement relations from abstract specifications to concrete implementations. There is no need for you to have any knowledge on specifying linearization points. And if you can give out such information, PAT can definitely take advantage of them to be much faster and more precise. Our method is complete and sound with carefully manual proving, as well as efficient due to optimization methods and the sufficient experiments. For more information please refer to our paper [LIUWL09].

As to linearizability as refinement relation, we should first look into an operation of a process on a shared object. In general, such an operation has three major actions: the invocation action of object, the linearization action(compute based on the sequential specification of the object) and the response action, we will have a clear example in the following part. These actions can be view as high level actions compared with the concept of low level actions such as when reading a certain variable, the low level action is to find the certain position pf the variable, while the high level actions only cares about such read and response action. Thus we will have a refined specification to
the detailed implementation of model, which only has the major sequence of events which will potentially contain a linearization point.

Above, we have explored a bunch of ideas including linearizability, linearization point and linearizability as refinement relation. Instead of keeping telling massive concepts, we will explore an simple example named *K-valued single-writer single-reader register* (PAT examples-> Linearizability Examples-> the first one) to see be aware of these ideas.

The implementation of this algorithm is modeled as follows:

- \( \text{Readers()} = \text{read} \_ \text{inv} \rightarrow \text{UpScan}(0); \)
- \( \text{UpScan}(i) = \begin{cases} \text{DownScan}(i - 1, i) & \text{if } B[i] == 1 \\ \text{UpScan}(i + 1) & \text{else} \end{cases}; \)
- \( \text{DownScan}(i, v) = \begin{cases} \text{if } (i >= 0) \{ \text{DownScan}(i - 1, i) \} & \text{if } B[i] == 1 \\ \text{DownScan}(i - 1, v) & \text{else} \} \)
- \( \text{read} \_ \text{res}.v \rightarrow \text{Readers}() \)
- \( \text{Writer}(i) = \text{write} \_ \text{inv}.i \rightarrow \tau\{B[i] = 1;\} \rightarrow \text{WriterDownScan}(i-1); \)
- \( \text{WriterDownScan}(i) = \begin{cases} \tau\{B[i] = 0;\} \rightarrow \text{WriterDownScan}(i-1) & \text{if } (i >= 0) \{ \text{write} \_ \text{res} \rightarrow \text{Skip} \} \\ \text{Writers()} = (\text{Writer}(0)\\text{Writer}(1)\\text{Writer}(2)) ; \text{Writers}(); \)
- \( \text{Register()} = \text{Readers()} ||| \text{Writers}(); \)

Note: The Reader process first does a upward scan from element 0 to the first non-zero element \( i \), and then does a downward scan from element \( i - 1 \) to element 0 and returns the index of last element whose value is 1. Event \( \text{read} \_ \text{res}.v \) returns this index as the return value of the read operation. The Write(v) process first sets the \( v \)-th element of \( B \) to 1, and then does a downward scan to set all elements before \( i \) to 0. Note that in this implementation, the linearization point for Reader is the last point where
the parameter $v$ in DownScan process is assigned in the execution. Therefore, the linearization point can not be statically determined. Instead, it can be in either UpScan or DownScan.

The abstract mode will be like the following with low-level actions hided:

- $\text{ReadersAbs()} = \text{read}_\text{inv} \rightarrow \tau (M=R) \rightarrow \text{read}_\text{res}.M \rightarrow \text{ReadersAbs}();$
- 
  - $\text{WriterAbs}(i) = \text{write}_\text{inv}.i \rightarrow \tau (R=i) \rightarrow \text{write}_\text{res} \rightarrow \text{Skip};$
- $\text{WritersAbs()} = (\text{WriterAbs}(0) || \text{WriterAbs}(1) || \text{WriterAbs}(2)); \text{WritersAbs}();$
- 
  - $\text{RegisterAbs()} = \text{ReadersAbs()} ||| \text{WritersAbs}();$

Note: The ReaderA process repeatedly reads the value of register $R$ and stores the value in local variable $M$. Event $\text{read}_\text{res}.M$ returns the value in $M$. WriteA$(v)$ writes the given value $v$ into $R$. Event $\text{write}_\text{inv}.v$ stores the value $v$ to be written into the register. The WriterA process repeatedly writes a value in the range of 0 to $K - 1$. External choices are used here to enumerate all possible values. RegisterA interleaves the reader and writer processes and hides the read and write events (linearization actions). The only visible events are the invocation and response of the read and write operations. This model generates all the possible linearizable traces.

Thus, we can going to check the refinement relations between the detailed model and the abstract model to verify the linearizability of $K$-valued single-writer single-reader register algorithm.
### 4.5 Timed Zenoness Checking

Because RTS module supports process constructs like deadline, it suffers from zeno executions, i.e., infinitely many steps taking within finite time. Zeno executions are unrealistic and therefore must be ruled out in model checking. It is known that zone graphs are not fine enough to distinguish zeno executions. We show that the zone...
graph produced by dynamic zone abstraction can be modified so that the properties are verified with the assumption of non-Zenoness.

To remove zeno executions, PAT implements zeno checking for LTL and deadlock assertions. Users only need to tick the "Apply Zeno Check" in the model checking form.

5. 5 Developer Guild

As model checking is emerging as an effective software validation method that it is always desirable to have a dedicated model checker for domain specific applications. While considering the development work that highly relies on both domain and model checking knowledge, it is quite difficult and nontrivial to build a dedicated model checker.

Whereas in our PAT framework, we have this layered design and modularized feature that allows our tool to be easily extended! The so-called intermediate representation layer (IRL) which separates modeling from verification, enables the underlying model checking algorithms (or other analysis techniques like testing) to be shared by different modules. For more details, please refer to section 5.1 PAT Architecture.

5.1 5.1 PAT Architecture

In our PAT framework, we adopt a layered design with an intermediate representation layer (IRL), which separates modeling languages from model checking algorithms. Hence these algorithms (or other analysis techniques like testing) can be shared by different languages. As shown in the figure below, PAT's architecture has four layers, which split the model checking process into three steps:
compilation, abstraction and verification. This separation reduces the coupling between different functionalities, hence increases the reusability of lower layers and the extensibility of upper layers. The four layers are introduced in the following:

**Modeling Layer**

Modeling layer contains modules of the supported application domains (e.g., distributed system, service oriented computing, security protocols and so on). It identifies the domain specific language syntax, well-formness rules as well as formal operational semantics, which are all encapsulated in a separate module. Two key components which are the language parser and model components (including syntax classes, variables, channels, etc.) consists this layer.

**Abstraction Layer**

Since model checking techniques only work with finite state systems, while a system often has infinitely many states according to its concrete operational semantics, that (automated) state abstraction is essential. In this layer, we applied abstraction technique into systems. For instance, zone abstraction abstract infinite TTSs into finite ones, process counter abstraction to group identical processes using process counter variables and ignore process identifiers (if they are irreverent) which reduces state space significantly. Partial order reduction to reduce all possible interleave execution orders of parallel running processes into a particular execution order is another effective method.

**Intermediate Representation Layer (IRL)**

After compilation and abstraction, the input model is converted to some form of internal representations, which is the basis of the model checking algorithms. Intermediate representation layer contains different semantic representations for different model checking approaches.

- For **explicit model checking**, three configuration interfaces are defined, i.e., LTS-the most general semantic models for untimed systems, TTS- the common semantic model for Timed Automata and timed process algebras, and MDP-
probabilistic systems. Each of the interfaces has a number of operations, which allow the underlying model checking algorithms (such as methods: \textit{MoveOneStep} and \textit{GetID}) to drive the execution of the system and collect information from system states. The configuration interface can also be used by the simulator to show the system state space graphically.

- For \textbf{symbolic model checking}, different operations are defined capture the language semantics, e.g., in the form of Boolean formulae. The Boolean formulae are usually stored in the form of Binary Decision Diagram (BDD) for symbolic model checking or Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) for bounded model checking. For BDD-based symbolic model checking, a method \textit{EncodeProcess} is defined for each language construct.

**Analysis Layer (IRL)**

This layer contains reusable model checking algorithms. For each intermediate representation in IRL, a set of algorithms are developed. For example, deadlock checking, reachability checking, LTL verification with or without fairness assumptions, refinement checking have been developed for LTS. If the verification result is false, a counterexample is produced, which can be visualized via simulator.
5.2 PAT Class Diagram

Model checking involves functions like state-space exploration, process scheduling enumeration, and state management. In the actual implementation of existing model checkers, these functions are highly tangled in order to achieve optimal performance.

PAT is designed to allow reusing and extending the functions. We choose C# as the implementation language for the benefits of Object-Oriented design and competitive performance. By applying DESIGN PATTERNs [GAMMAHJV95], the implementation details are successfully hided with proper encapsulation. The coupling between the components is reduced and then extensibility can be achieved. We further apply this
design strategy to module interface design. The dependency between common library and individual modules is minimized.

PAT's design is hierarchical, as reflected in the class diagram in the following figure. The system consists of two basic packages, namely PAT.GUI and PAT.Common, and 11 module packages. Each of the 11 modules implements necessary module interfaces and is packed into a plug-in DLL. The complete API can be found in section 5.4 PAT APIs.

We use the CSP module as a demonstrating example to explain the implementation details which involves implementation of GUI package & Common Package and Module Package in section 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 respectively.

5.2.1 GUI and Common Package
**PAT.GUI package**

This package implements main graphical user interfaces and the plug-in architecture. GUI package loads the syntax files of different modules during the system initialization, which stores the syntax information (e.g., keywords, folding, and auto-completion) and module information. When users want to perform syntax checking, simulation or verification of an input model, the linked module is loaded into the system dynamically using reflection technique and then the corresponding interface method is invoked.

**PAT.Common package**

As shown in the Class Diagram previously, *PAT.Common* package consists of three parts which are module interfaces, common GUI and shared libraries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Interfaces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The module interface adopts ABSTRACT FACTORY pattern, where <em>ModuleFacadeBase</em> is the abstract factory, and <em>ModuleFacade</em> classes in each module are concrete factories. The product is <em>Specification</em> interface, and the concrete products are the actual <em>Specification</em> implementations in modules. The clients of using the products are the GUI classes. This pattern separates the details of different modules from their general usage.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Abstract class *ModuleFacadeBase* in *PAT.Common* package defines the module interface. It behaves as the central gate communicating with the GUI package by adopting the FACADE design pattern, i.e., check the syntax, show simulator window and model checker window. **Note:** All modules must implement this interface in order to be recognized by the plug-in framework.
- *Specification* is the interface class for the internal representation of system models. It also uses FACADE pattern to communicate with *SimulatorGUI* and *ModelCheckerGUI* which are the common GUIs, to provide the
information of the user input model. Specification is composed by system model and properties (named Assertions in the class diagram) which are to be verified. Since system model information is module dependent, Specification is only associated with Assertions in the common package.

**Shared Library**

The **Expression** and **Value** classes define the interfaces for a simple but general WHILE language with variables and some primitive values. Though these classes should be implemented in the actual module, we move them to the common library so that they can be shared by all modules. Variable values need to be cloned if one state has more than two outgoing transitions. To systematically implement the clone process for all values, we adopt the PROTOTYPE pattern for Value class and its subclasses, where the Clone method creates new objects by copying the existing ones.

Besides the module interfaces and shared library, **PAT.Common** package contains the intermediate layer and verification algorithms in the analysis layer.

**The LTSState Class**

Since we take CSP module for the running example, the intermediate representation layer here is just one abstract class LTSState, which implements a single transition with a target state in LTS definition. The transition's label is stored in the Label property, and target state information (e.g., variable valuation, channel buffer, program counter and so on) shall be realized in the actual module since it is module related. **MoveOneStep** method generates all the possible transitions starting from the target state. **GetID** method returns the unique hashed string representation of the label and target state. The two abstract methods shall be realized in the actual modules and will be used by the verification algorithms. It is clear that starting from an initial state, these methods are sufficient to generate the complete state space.

**Note:** If symbolic model checking is used, the **EncodeProcess** abstract
method should be realized in actual module to encode the target state and outgoing transitions to Boolean formulae that can be used by the symbolic model checker or SAT solvers.

The Assertion Class

Assertion class defines the interface for properties. It has one initial state, from where it explores the system state space and produces a counterexample if the property is not satisfied. Because verification algorithms need to keep track of visited states or have a scheduler if the concurrent processes have different priorities, a StateManager and a SchedulingManager are linked with the Assertion for verification algorithm to use them to store the states and perform process scheduling without worrying about the actual implementation. These two classes also adopt the STRATEGY pattern since a number of state hashing and scheduling strategies are possible.

Currently, for LTS verification, four categories of assertions are supported as shown in Class Diagram. For example, for safety properties (e.g., DeadlockAssertion, RefinementAssertion and ReachabilityAssertion), three searching strategies are possible: depth-first-search (DFS), breadth-first-search (BFS) and symbolic verification algorithm using greatest fixed point method. For liveness properties (i.e., LTLAssertion), two searching strategies are possible: nested DFS [GJH97] or Tarjan's strongly-connected components searching algorithm [Tarjan72]. These strategies are selected according to users' choice during the run-time.

Note: To increase the reusability of the code, we create the generic version of popular algorithms using TEMPLATE pattern. For example, DFS and BFS are searching algorithms used in all safety property verification.

To have a reusable implementation, we create a generic DFS (BFS) algorithm with an abstract early termination condition. Different algorithms implement the early termination condition differently. For instance, DeadlockAssertion's early termination condition is that the current state is a deadlock state.
ReachabilityAssertion's early termination condition is that the current state satisfies the desired condition.

5.2.2 5.2.2 Module Package

Each module package should first implement the module interface and specification interface, and then the modeling layer's components, i.e., language parser (e.g., CSPParser), variable valuation and channel buffer (stored in Valuation) and language syntax classes.

language syntax classes

The language syntax classes in CSP module naturally form a COMPOSITE pattern by following the language grammar. Each language construct (e.g., parallel composition, sequential compositions, choice process and so on) is implemented as a single class, which implements the Process interface with two key methods: MoveOneStep and EncodeProcess. These two methods implement the semantics of the language syntax for the two different model checking approaches. MoveOneStep method follows the operational semantic rules to realize the state transitions from current state to a list of target states. EncodeProcess performs the encoding of the syntax to Boolean formulae that can be used by the symbolic model checker or SAT solvers.

CSPState class

The most important class to be implemented is the CSPState class, which realizes the concrete transitions of the LTS. For CSP#, each system state contains the current valuation of variables, buffered elements in the channels and current active process. This composition is exactly implemented in the Class Diagram. The MoveOneStep method (or EncodeState method) in CSPState class will invoke the MoveOneStep (or EncodeProcess) method of the current active process by providing current variable
valuation and channel buffer data. This guarantees that LTS is generated by following the operational semantics. At this point, modeling layer is completed.

**Abstraction and Reduction Techniques**

Most of the abstraction and reduction techniques are highly language dependent. For example, different timed related operators in real-time systems shall update the zones in different ways. Partial order reduction strategies require information about processes, global variables, dependencies of transitions, control-flow of processes, etc. This restriction makes the abstraction layer hardly fully independent from modeling layer. Most of the abstraction and reduction techniques are embedded inside method `MoveOneStep` or `EncodeState` to produce a reduced state space. In PAT, we demonstrate these techniques by code samples and libraries so that our experiences can be reused.

[TOP]

**5.3 5.3 PAT Extensions**

In this section, we discuss the possible extensions of PAT with the help of the pre-defined APIs, examples and libraries. These extensions allow domain experts to create customized model checkers in all levels, based on their knowledge of the model checking.

Basically, we will introduce how to create a dedicated model checker by means of following four ways which will be covered in detail in four sub-sections respectively.

- **Language Translation:** Translating models into a language supported by an existing module in PAT through the module APIs.
- **Language Extension:** Extending one of the existing languages with new syntax, data types or libraries.
- **Algorithm Extension:** Extending PAT with general or domain specific new model checking algorithms, state reduction techniques or abstraction techniques.
• **Module Extension:** Extending PAT with a completely new module supporting a new language.

After reading over all the four methods, you will be skilled to develop your own model checker. Have fun!

[TOP]

5.3.1 5.3.1 Language Translation

The easiest way of creating a model checker is to create a syntax rewriter from a domain specific language to an existing language in PAT. This is only recommended if the domain language is less expressiveness than the existing languages.

Comparing with other tools, programming a language translator is straightforward in PAT. Because PAT has well-defined APIs for Specification facade class and module language constructs, users only need to create the Specification model and generate the language constructs objects using these APIs. For example, Specification class in CSP# module offers the interfaces to create global Variables, Channels, Processes and Assertions. This approach requires little interaction with PAT codes. Most importantly, the target language model is automatic generated from the Specification class, which can guarantee syntax correctness. The usefulness of this extension has been demonstrated by the build-in translator from Promela4 to CSP# [ZHAO10] and the translator from UML state diagram to CSP# [ZHANGL10].

However, sometimes this approach will be infeasible. For example, the translation may not be optimal if special domain specific language features are present. In addition, reflecting analysis results (e.g., showing the counterexample trace) back to the domain model is often non-trivial.

[TOP]

5.3.2 5.3.2 Language Extension
To create a new model checker which only need to enrich a existing modeling language, may use the following ways. You can create new data types and support new libraries or extend the language syntax by implementing certain classes and interfaces.

**Extensible Data Type and Library**

For simplicity, existing modules in PAT only support integer variables, Boolean variables and (multi-directional) arrays of integer or Boolean. However, sometimes user defined data type is necessary and can simplify the model substantially. In the Common project, PAT defines the interface for variable valuations, which includes methods for hashing (or encoding) the value for state representation, a to-string method for simulator display and deep-clone method for duplicating the values. PAT provides the functionality to create arbitrary data type by simply creating a C# class inheriting the Value interface. These classes can be imported into the model (based on the reflection mechanism in .NET) and used as normal variables. We demonstrate the idea by creating a Set data type using the code in the following Listing.

```csharp
public class Set : HashSet<int>, Value {

    public override string ExpressionID {
        get {
            String id = "";
            foreach (int element in set) {
                id += element + ", ";
            }
            return id.TrimEnd (',');
        }
    }

    public override string ToString() {
        return "\{ " + ExpressionID + "\}";
    }

    public override Value GetClone() {
```
• 15        return new Set ( this ) ;
• 16    }
• 17    public bool IsDisjoint( Set set ) {
• 18        foreach ( int i in this ) {
• 19            foreach ( int j in set ) {
• 20                if ( i == j ) {
• 21                    return false ;
• 22                }
• 23            }
• 24        }
• 25        return true ;
• 26    }
• 27    }

First, Set class implements the Value interface in order to be used in PAT. ExpressionID property returns the unique string representation of the data type at any time. ToString method produces the pretty print of the set elements, which can be used in the simulator. GetClone method implements the PROTOTYPE design pattern. To implement the operations of a set, Set class inherits the generic HashSet class in the .NET framework. Therefore existing methods in HashSet like Add, Remove are inherited automatically. New methods can also be created easily, for example IsDisjoint method. Compared with Bogor's set extension, our approach is much simpler. To use the Set class, users only need to import the compiled DLL and declare the variable of Set type. The variable can be initialized using new keyword and methods of Set class can be invoked as in traditional OO program. The syntax of using the user defined data type can be found in section 2.5 Using C# Code as Libraries.

Another benefit of the extensible data type design is that users can control the data hashing function, which may reduce the state space significantly. For example, a check board can be presented by the position of pieces only without including the empties
spaces. Therefore, the *ExpressionID* property can be defined to contain only positions of pieces to speedup the verification.

**Language Syntax Extension**

In general, the input language of a model checker must be carefully designed, with preciseness, intuitiveness and efficiency in mind. A minor syntax extension or modification may require re-examination of the whole system. PAT facilitates such extensions with the following design supports.

- All the parsers in PAT are developed using ANTLR parser generator with clearly documented grammars rules. New language syntax can be easily added by changing the grammar rules and generating the code automatically.
- Each language syntax is implemented in a single class (refer to PAT.CSP package in the class diagram), which implements its semantics. To support new language syntax, only one class needs to be implemented by following the syntax class interface (e.g., the Process class in the class diagram). PAT's layered design requires minimum change in the system and all model checking algorithm developed can be reused.

Taking the probabilistic module PCSP as an example, it extends the concurrent system modeling language CSP# with one additional language feature, i.e., probabilistic choices. Knowledge about existing modules is required and a new parser is created for the extended language features.

![TOP]

5.3.3 5.3.3 Algorithm Extension

It is possible that a domain may have specialized properties and require dedicated model checking algorithms for these properties. For abstraction techniques, they are highly language dependent and hard to extend. These two cases usually need special care as we will elaborate them in detail respectively in the following two parts.
Property Extension

PAT’s design allows seamless integration of new model checking algorithms and optimization techniques. To create a new property, users need to create a new assertion class, inheriting the base Assertion class and implementing its methods. The dedicated model checking algorithm is implemented in the Verify method. In addition, method GetCounterExample must be implemented if a concrete counterexample is to be generated.

Note: that GetCounterExample is optional for some modules. For instance, for probabilistic model checking based on MDP, the verification result is a probability range, e.g., with more than 0.5 and less than 0.85 probability a property is satisfied, which may not require the generation of a counterexample.

PAT offers a number of algorithm templates like generic DFS and BFS algorithm to help the development of model checking algorithms. Furthermore, supporting functions, like LTL to Büchi or Rabin or Streett automata conversion which is essential for LTL model checking, or DBM library which is for real-time system verification, are provided in PAT. With the help of PAT’s design, we have successfully extended PAT with the algorithms for divergence checking, timed refinement checking in real-time system module and new deadlock and probabilistic reachability checking recently.

Abstraction Extension

In general, abstraction techniques are to be encoded as part of language semantics, in the MoveOneStep or EncodeProcess methods of each language construct in each module. PAT offers a framework for abstract-refinement techniques. If over-approximation abstraction is applied, users must override the method to check whether a generated counterexample is spurious or not and override the method to refine the abstraction.

Currently, PAT offers one module independent abstraction, i.e., process counter abstraction. Parameterized systems are characterized by the presence of a large (or
even unbounded) number of behaviorally similar processes, and they often appear in distributed/concurrent systems. A common state space abstraction for checking parameterized systems groups behaviorally similar processes rather than keeping track of all process identifiers. When a system with identical concurrent processes, process counter abstraction can be implemented by invoking the library provided in PAT to update the counter and mark the group of identical processes as abstracted. The verification algorithms will automatically recognize this mark and check the generated counterexample is spurious due to the abstraction or real counterexample. With the provided sample code, process counter abstraction can be implemented quickly and correctly.

5.3.4 5.3.4 Module Extension

Module extension is the last resort if the previous approaches are not applicable. In this case, users need to write a parser according to the language syntax, implement the language construct classes to encode the operational semantics of each and every language construct, and lastly, make connections with the intermediate layer. (Please refer to a recently developed tool Module Generator can help you to create your module easily.)

This approach is the most complicated compared with ones discussed previously. Nevertheless, this approach gives the most flexibility and efficiency. It is difficult to quantify the effort required to build a high-quality module in PAT. Experiences suggest that a new module can be developed in months or even weeks in our team. This approach is still feasible for domain experts who have only the basic knowledge on model checking, since model checking algorithms and state space reduction techniques are separated from modeling languages. In order to make use of the model checking library, only knowledge on the module interfaces and IRL is necessary.
To illustrate the feasibility of this approach, we elaborate the process of creating the TA module to support verification of Timed Automata models. The graphic interface for drawing Timed Automata is based on an existing module (e.g., the LTS module which allows users to draw LTSs). We omit the details here. Besides, creating this TA module involves 4 steps.

1. Create a package for the module and add the `PAT.Common` package in package’s references (In the actual implementation, a package will be a C# project of type "Class Library". The output of the project is a single DLL file. `PAT.Common` package is a DLL, which can be found in PAT’s installation folder).

2. Implement the module interfaces so that the module can be recognized by PAT. Module interfaces include two classes, i.e., `ModuleFacade` and `Specification`, which are the same as the CSP module shown in the class diagram.

3. Create a parser and the language related classes. The input language of TA module is a network of timed automata running in parallel. For each automaton, there are a set of states and transitions between the states. Because this modeling language is not hierarchical as CSP# (hence no need to apply COMPOSITE pattern), only one language syntax class is needed for the TA network and one class to store a single automaton. The global variables and channels can be implemented in the same way as CSP# module using Valuation class (refer to the Class Diagram). Clock variables and valuations can be implemented using `Difference Bounded Matrix` package provided by `PAT.Common` package. The expressions (variable assignments, guard conditions, etc.) can reuse the classes inside common package.

4. Connect with the intermediate layer by implementing the `TASState`. In TA module, each TASState should include the `Valuation` of global variables and channels, clock zones of type DBM and a TA network.

In total, users only need to implement 7 classes to create a module, i.e., 2 interface classes, 1 parser class, 3 language related components and 1 state interface. With the
basic understanding of model checking and PAT tool design, we finish the TA module within a month.

[TOP]

5.3.5 Using PAT as Library

In this part, we shall look at the process of using PAT as a library in details. As PAT is written in C#, for simplicity, we only discuss the steps of referencing PAT library in C#.

1 Preliminary Settings

To link up to the PAT library, several references have to be added into the project first. "PAT.Common" is an essential package that must be added in. The .dll file "PAT.Common.dll" is located at the root folder of your PAT installation. Then depending on the modules to be used, the corresponding references also need to be added. For example, if the CSP module is to be used, then "PAT.Module.CSP" should be included into the reference list. The .dll files can be found at "Modules" folder under the root. Note that the "Modules" folder itself also needs to be copied to the execution directory. If user defined C# library is to be imported to the model, then the .dll files of the library should be put under "Lib" folder of the execution directory.

2 Sample Codes

Below are some sample codes of how to use provided methods in the PAT library to run model verifications.

1. Load the module base of a specific module and parse the model specification using the loaded module base.
   - using PAT.Common;
   - using PAT.Common.Utility;
//Load the module

//Parse the model specification
SpecificationBase Spec =
    modulebase.ParseSpecification(ModelSpecification, ",", ",");

2. After parsing, all the assertions in the model specification will be stored in the "SpecificationBase". The assertions can be retrieved by looking up in the generic library "SpecificationBase.AssertionDatabase". For instance, the following code will get the first assertion base from the assertion database.
   o AssertionBase assertion = Spec.AssertionDatabase.Values.ElementAt(0);

3. For each assertion, a series of settings can be applied before the verification. The settings include all the options that can be found in the GUI version, such as, fairness type, verbose, parallel verification, shortest witness trace, etc. Then call the method "InternalStart()" of "AssertionBase" to start the verification.
   o //Apply verification settings
   o assertion.UIInitialize(null, FairnessType.NO_FAIRNESS, false, false, false, true, false, false);

   o //Start the verification
4. After the verification is done, the results will be stored in "AssertionBase.VerificationOutput". The results include "VerificationResult" which indicates whether the assertion is valid or not, "CounterExampleTrace" which keeps the witness trace of the counter example found, "EstimateMemoryUse", "VerificationTime", etc.

   If
   
   (assertion.VerificationOutput.VerificationResult.Equals(VerificationResultType.INVALID))
   
   { //The assertion is invalid
   
   }

   //Get the counterexample trace
   
   string result = "";
   
   foreach (ConfigurationBase step in assertion.VerificationOutput.CounterExampleTrace)
   
   {
   
   result += step.GetDisplayEvent();
   
   }

5. The "OutOfMemoryException" should be caught in your code.

   //RuntimeExceptions
   catch (RuntimeException ex)
   
   {
   
   System.Console.Out.WriteLine("Runtime exception occurred: " + ex.Message);
   
   //Out of memory Exception
   
   if (ex is OutOfMemoryException)
Module Generator is to help developers to quickly build a new model checker for any modeling language as a module of PAT. By providing module name, language syntax construct names and choices of assertions, Module Generator automatically generates the module project (in C#) with interface classes (e.g. ModuleFacade, Specification, state interface etc.), language classes with code skeletons. With the generated code, developers only need to create a parser of the new modeling language and implement the operational semantics by completing the specific methods within the code skeletons.

A new module can be developed independently without the source code of PAT. This approach is also feasible for domain experts who have only the basic knowledge.
on model checking, since model checking algorithms and state space reduction techniques are separated from modeling languages. Users can find this function under the **Tools** tab in PAT’s editor, as shown in the following figure.

In this section, you can learn (1) in **Section 5.4.1** how to use Module Generator to generate a C# project for a new model checker, (2) in **Section 5.4.2** how to work with the generated code to complete the development of the target model checker, and (3) in **Section 5.4.3** an example of developing a model checker for a simple language.
5.4.1 Module Generation

The GUI of Module Generator is shown in the following Figure.

First of all, you need to provide a module name. Module Code shall be defined as an abbreviation of your module name. For Syntax Panel, you have to fill in the language
constructs of your new module, such as in CSP we support process interleave, parallel etc. The module generator will create these classes automatically for you.

As for Semantics panel here, we currently support three semantic models, e.g., LTS for CSP languages, TTS for timed systems and MDP for probabilistic systems. These are the three intermediate representations supported in PAT. After choosing the semantic model, the generator will automatically generate corresponding classes.

There are also a bunch of assertion checking algorithms supported and can be reused in the new module. Code will automatically generated according to the semantic model. You are also free to add domain specific assertions to your new module reusing these generated algorithms.

**Note:** if there is any error happened, try to regenerate the code again, since the code generation engine (from Microsoft) is not stable sometimes.

The following table summarizes the fields of the GUI to specify before generating code.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Type</th>
<th>Optional</th>
<th>Field Name</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Remark</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text box</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Module Name</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Name of the module</td>
<td>Event Grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Module Code</td>
<td>Module Identifier</td>
<td>It will be used as the extension of the input file of the generated module.</td>
<td>EG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>Language Construct</td>
<td>The generated code will contain a C# class for each language construct specified here.</td>
<td>Event, Process, Sentence, Sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropdown list</td>
<td>Choose one</td>
<td>Semantic Model</td>
<td>LTS Labeled Transition</td>
<td>The generated module will first produce chosen semantic models</td>
<td>Labeled Transition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
from the three System and then execute corresponding model check algorithms on the semantic model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generated BDD Encoding Methods</th>
<th>TTS Timed Transition System</th>
<th>MDP Markov Decision Processes</th>
<th>System (LTS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Tick this check box and the BDD encoding methods will be generated automatically, allowing developers to use PAT's BDD library for optimizing verification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Check box</th>
<th>Supported Assertions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Deadlockfree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reachability Checking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear Temporal Logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deterministic Checking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divergence Checking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Refinement Checking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interface of the deadlock checking algorithm will be generated.
The interface of the state-reachability checking algorithm will be generated.
The interface of the LTL checking algorithm will be generated.
The interface of the deterministic checking algorithm will be generated.
The interface of the Divergence checking algorithm will be generated.
The interface of the refinement checking algorithm will be generated.
5.4.2 Working with Generated Code

The generated code is a complete C# solution with two projects: PAT.Main and PAT.Module."Your Module Code". To work with the code, open "PAT3 Source.sln" using Visual Studio 2008 or later. The code structure is displayed below.

Note: the code should be compilable. If not, please try to re-generate the code.

PAT.Main is the GUI project which contains a simple editor which allows developers to input a model for simulation and verification. You don't need to modify this project for your module development.

PAT.Module."Your Module Code" is the module project. The classes inside this project are explained below. Or you can refer to Section 5.2.2 for more details.
**Assertions** folder contains all the assertions to be supported. Unless you want to develop your own assertions, otherwise you don't need to change anything.

**LTS** folder contains all the syntax classes, specification class and state interface class. Sample LTS syntax classes can be found in the subfolder for your reference. You need to develop a parser and put inside this folder. *Specification* class is the internal representation of the input model. *Configuration* class is the state interface. *ConfigurationWithChannelData* class is the state interface used for synchronous channel communication. If your module doesn't have synchronous channel, then there is no need to have this class.

**Utility** folder contains some utility functions.

**ModuleFacade** class is the module interface class to communicate with GUI classes. You only need to change this class if you want to add some examples for your module. The code templates are inside this class for you to follow.

Note: if there is any question of using the generated code, please email pat@comp.nus.edu.sg.

[TOP]

5.4.3 5.4.3 Example

In the following, we will show how to use PAT Module Generator to generate a new model checker:

(A). **Generate Code with Module Generator**

(B). Complete the generated code

(C). Executing and testing the new model checker

The source code of this example can be downloaded [here](#).
A model language Simplified CSP (SCSP), which is a small subset of CSP, is used as a running example for the purpose of illustration. In SCSP, a process is constructed only by event prefixing or interleaving. The syntax of SCSP is as follows:

\[ P = e \rightarrow P \mid P \parallel P \mid \text{Skip}; \]

(A). Generate Code with Module Generator

With the Module Generator, it is very convenient and simple to generate the code for a SCSP model checker as illustrated by the following figure.
Once the code generation is completed, the following dialogue will appear to inform you.

![PAT 3 Dialogue](image1)

Now you can open the Windows Explorer to locate the generated C# project:

![Windows Explorer](image2)

(B). Complete the generated code

Double click **PAT3 Source.sln** and you will open the C# solution in Microsoft Visual Studio.
In the generated solution, there are two projects:

- **PAT.Main**, contains the interface to the GUI package of PAT; one can refine the GUI editor for the language by re-implementing the class EditorTabItem.cs, and re-organizing error messages by modifying ErrorListWindow.cs. Note: no modification is required here, unless one want to re-implement the editor.

- **PAT.Module.SCSP**, contains the code for all the rest stuffs, as follows:
Assertions: this folder provides model checking for deadlock and state reachability checking, recalling that in part (A) only these two kinds of assertions are chosen to be supported. Thus, the parser should support the syntax for these two types of assertions, too. In the generated code, the default model checking algorithms of PAT are inherited, and developers can re-implement the algorithms by him/herself.

LTS: this folder contains two categories of functionality. The first is to provide a parser to analyze a SCSP model, and the second is to describe each language construct as a class and integrate the semantics of each language construct into the method MoveOneStep. Note that the parser classes are not generated automatically. Thus, one needs to create parser classes manually, e.g., SCSPTreeLexer.cs, SCSPTreeParser.cs, and SCSPTreeWalker.cs.

Besides, there are two classes that are created for specific purposes.

- Configuration.cs, the class the represents the semantic model of your language. By default, the code is complete and you need not modify anything.

- Specification.cs, the controlling class, which communicates with ModuleFacade.cs and LTS. Two methods are important and should be completed in order to make the code effects, and they are:
1. **ParseSpec()**: code should be added here to invoke the parser to analyze the input model. Note that this method will be invoked before each request of simulation or verification. Meanwhile, also make sure that each assertion has been initialized within this method, by code like the following:

   ```csharp
   foreach (KeyValuePair<string, AssertionBase> entry in AssertionData) {
       entry.Value.Initialize(this);
   }
   ```

2. **SimulationInitialization()**: code should be added here to generate the model list (at least one model) that will appear in the simulator window, once simulation button is clicked. Note that if this method is not implemented, the simulator would not function properly.

The rest of classes in LTS are all language construct representations, including Definition, DefinitionRef, EventPrefix, Interleave, Process, Skip and Stop. Make sure that proper instances are created by the parser based on a certain input model.

- (C). Executing and testing the new model checker
Editing a SCSP model in the editor:

Simulating it:
Verifying it:

![Simulation Diagram]

Graph Generated: 3 Nodes, 3 Edges

Verifying it:
PAT - An Enhanced Simulation and Model Checking Tool

FirstTest.scsp

P = a -> b -> c -> P;
Q = e -> f -> Skip;
Sys = P ||| Q;
#assert P deadlockfree;
#assert Q deadlockfree;
#assert Sys deadlockfree;

Verification - FirstTest.scsp

Assertions

- 1. P deadlockfree
- 2. Q deadlockfree
- 3. Sys deadlockfree

Options

System Fairness Setting: No Fairness
Shortest Witness Trace: False
Timed out after (seconds): 0

Verification Result

The Assertion (P deadlockfree) is **VALID**.

Verification Statistics

- Method: DFS Reachability Analysis
- Fairness: Not Applicable
- System abstraction: False
- Visited States: 3
- Total Transitions: 3
- Time Used: 0.0232271s
- Estimated Memory Used: 143.948KB

Select an assertion to start with
6. 6 FAQs

The FQAs are divided to two subsections:

- Installation FAQ
- Using PAT FAQ

6.1 Installation FAQ

Q1: I can not install PAT!

Answer:

- 1) Make sure you have installed the .NET framework 4.0.
- 2) Make sure the installation file is correctly downloaded: "PAT3.Setup.XXX.msi". Some users accidentally rename the installation file with extra .exe in the end.
- 3) The last remedy is to download direct executable of PAT and run it directly without installation.

Q2: Can I run PAT in linux or Solaris, Mac OS X and Unix?

Answer: Yes. See section 2.1 for the details.

Q3: Cannot start PAT 3.exe on mono

Answer: If the error message informs that assembly **System.Windows.Forms** is missing, please get the packages libmono-winforms1.0-cil and libmono-winforms2.0-cil.
If you get "Could not get XIM" error, one way you could do is to set the environment variable as "export MONO_WINFORMS_XIM_STYLE=disabled".

Q4: I can not start the simulator for old version of PAT!

Answer: Please make sure you have System.Core.dll under PAT installation folder.

6.2 Using PAT FAQ

Q1: How to debug in PAT?

Answer:

PAT does not provide runtime debugger. Nevertheless, you can easily do the debugging using variable range checking, assertions or simulator.

- 1) Explicitly providing the range for the global variables, e.g., `var x{1..120};` if the variable's range is out of bound in simulation or verification, PAT will throw runtime exception as the feedback.
- 2) Using `assert(condition)` process inside your program. `Assert(condition)` will throw a PAT runtime exception during the execution if the condition is evaluated to be false.
- 3) Writing simple (safety) assertions on global data to check whether they are violated or not, e.g., `#assert system |= [] invariant;` where invariant can be the desired property you want to guarantee.
- 4) If your model is small, you can quickly using simulator to trace the behaviors of your model or generate the complete state space.

Q2: How do I know that my model is error-free?

Answer:
After finishing your model, you can check the syntax of your model by clicking *Check Grammar* button. If your model is syntactically correct, PAT will display the parsed model in the output window in the bottom. You can check the parsed model to confirm that your model is the one you want. **Note:** sometimes, a missing bracket or simple typo can produce a different model.

All module parsers in PAT support error recovery, e.g., they can automatically add missing brackets or remove extra brackets or semi-colons. However, all error recovery information will be displayed as warnings in *Error List* window (see the Figure below). You need to be careful if there are warnings after parsing, because the error recovery feature may parse the model to a different one than you want. **We suggest you to clear out all warnings before doing any analysis.**

Q3: When I run the model, PAT crashes like following. What should I do?

![Error List Window](image)

**Answer:**
PAT tries to catch all the exceptions internally. However, if the model gives a stack overflow exception, then PAT cannot catch it. The reason of stack overflow exception is most likely because your model has self-loop like following example. Be careful when using ifa with looping back.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{var} & \quad x = 0; \\
P & = \text{ifa}(x==1) \{\text{Skip}\} \text{ else}\{P\};
\end{align*}
\]

Q4: Is it possible to imptr new Lib file in local folder?

Answer:

Yes. The compiled .dll file can either be inside the Lib folder of the installation folder or the under the same directory with the model file.

Q5: For the following program, can the two processes P() and Q() synchronise on the event a? Then how to make them synchronise on 'a' and preserve the execution of statement block \(\{x++\}\) in an atomic fashion?

- \(\text{var} \quad x=0;\)
- \(P() = a\{x++\} \rightarrow b \rightarrow P();\)
- \(Q() = a \rightarrow c \rightarrow P();\)
- \(\text{System()} = P() \text{ || } Q();\)

Answer:

A intuitive solution is to put the event 'a' and increment statement in a 'atomic' action as follows:

- \(P() = \text{atomic}\{a \rightarrow \text{update}\{x++\} \rightarrow \text{Skip}\};b \rightarrow \text{Skip};\)
- \(Q() = a \rightarrow c \rightarrow \text{Skip};\)
- \(a\text{System()} = P() \text{ || } Q();\)

Then x will be updated right after a is engaged, and a will be synchronised.
The other possible solution could be:

- \[ P() = a \rightarrow \text{update}(x++) \rightarrow a1 \rightarrow b \rightarrow P(); \]
- \[ Q() = a \rightarrow a1 \rightarrow c \rightarrow P(); \]

7. 7 References


[GAMMAHJV95] E. Gamma, R. Helm, R. E. Johnson, and J. Vlissides. *DesignPatterns: Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software*. Addison-Wesley, 1995.


[TOP]